CENTRAL STATES

Speech Journal

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THE GRADUATE ASSISTANT LOOKS AT HIMSELF . . . . . *Ronald R. Allen*

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Notes From The Executive Committee Meetings December 26-7, 1957, Hotel Sherman, Chicago

The Executive Committee adopted the following:

1. Established a budget item of $150 for use by the President to be used to pay expenses of members of our profession and/or honoraria for those outside of our profession who appear as speakers at the General Sessions of our conventions.

2. Continued the standing committees with minor variations in personnel.

3. Approved the tender of a contract for the 1962 Convention, April 6 and 7, to the Hotel Sherman. Chose Chicago as the site of the 1963 Convention. (N.B. Intervening Conventions will be: April 10–11, 1959, Hotel Statler, Detroit; April 8–9, 1960, Hotel LaSalle, Chicago; 1961, Chicago, LaSalle Hotel.)

4. Approved continuation of the JOURNAL in its present form and number of copies.

5. Nominated the following to the SAA Nominating Committee for Regional Representatives to the SAA Legislative Assembly: Keith Brooks, Ohio; Charles Balcer, Minnesota; William Conboy, Kansas; Bea Olmstead, Michigan; Blandford Jennings, Missouri; Harlan Adams, Nebraska; Sam Becker, Iowa; Fred Walsh, North Dakota.

6. Established a budget item of $100 for use as a subsidy to share expenses of members of the CSSA Executive Committee who are invited to speak at meetings of the several state associations, provided that all alternative sources of funds have been exhausted.

7. Authorized not more than 13 awards to Young Teachers for 1958, one awarded in each of the following regions: North and South Dakota and Nebraska; Oklahoma and Kansas; Iowa and Missouri; Wisconsin and Minnesota; Indiana and Illinois; Ohio and Michigan; and a maximum of seven awards "at large."

In the Business Meeting of the Central States Speech Association, December 27, 1957, the following officers were elected, to assume their duties on June 1, 1958.

President-Elect: Donald K. Smith, University of Minnesota
Vice-President: John H. Wiley, University of Nebraska

The Editorial Policy of the Central States Speech Journal

Our editorial policy is based upon the following four concepts suggested by the Central States Speech Association Advisory Council:

1. Two issues annually, 64 pages each, published in November and March; deadlines are October 15 and February 15.
2. Services performed well by the *Quarterly Journal of Speech* and other periodicals should not be needlessly duplicated.
3. Emphasis should be placed on ideas which will be useful to the classroom teacher.
4. All areas of our profession, including drama, speech correction, radio, etc., should be represented effectively.

Manuscripts most acceptable will be those which satisfy the above requirements. Suggested length is "less than 2,000 words."

The style most desirable is that suggested in the "M.L.A. Style Sheet." (Write to the treasurer of the Modern Language Association of America, 100 Washington Square East, New York 3, New York; price, 15c.)

Manuscripts submitted for consideration will be evaluated by a panel of consulting editors.

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The Central States Speech Journal
Vol. IX, No. 2 Spring, 1958

The Functions of the Committees of the Central States Speech Association

Wayne N. Thompson
President of The Central States Speech Association

The academic year of 1957-1958 is historic for the Central States Speech Association and significant for its members. For the first time in the history of the organization a series of standing committees has studied and reported upon a number of problems important to teachers of speech and to their various societies.

The paragraphs that follow summarize the reports of these committees as submitted during the convention in Chicago on December 26, 27, and 28. The purposes of this article are both to inform the CSSA members and to solicit their criticisms and recommendations.

The first area with which one of your committees is concerned is that of teacher recruitment and retention —a matter of urgent concern almost everywhere. In recognition of the seriousness of this problem, the Executive Committee of the CSSA established the Committee on Awards for Outstanding Young Teachers at the Chicago Convention in 1956. This committee took the necessary preliminary steps in 1956-1957, and this year, under the chairmanship of Dr. Charles Balcer, made the first of an annual set of awards. The names and the teaching affiliations of the first group of recipients are as follows: Mrs. Marie W. Holmes, Prescott, Wisconsin, High School; Dr. Donald K. Sikkink, South Dakota State College; Mrs. David E. Tull, Community Speech and Hearing Center, Enid, Oklahoma; Goodwin F. Berquist, Jr., The Ohio State University; Erwin H. Bitz, Grand Forks, North Dakota, Public Schools; Miss Catherine E. Moodie, University of Nebraska; Dr. Ronald F. Reid, Washington University; Dr. Arthur Housman, St. Cloud, Minnesota, State College; Murray Hewgill, Michigan State University; Dr. Charles Goetzinger, Kansas State College; F. Fulton Ross, Davenport, Iowa, Senior High School; Dr. Eugene K. Bristow, Indiana University; and Jack D. Armold, University of Illinois, Chicago.

The committee is not fully satisfied with its procedures for receiving and evaluating nominations, but creating routines and establishing channels of communication are in themselves substantial accomplishments. A young teacher has been defined as one with not more than five years of experience, and the intention is to consider all geographic areas, all grade levels, and all fields of specialization, such as correction and hearing, public ad-

Mr. Thompson (Ph.D., Northwestern, 1943) is Professor of Speech, Head of Speech Staff, and Director of Forensics, University of Illinois, Chicago Undergraduate Division.

dress, theatre, interpretation, and radio and television. The items in the criterion that the committee for 1957-1958 used are these: "sense of mission, love of people, love of his work, intellectual honesty, thorough knowledge of his subject, nonauthoritarian attitude, understanding of students, and ability to create student interest."

The members of the Committee on Awards for Outstanding Young Teachers, besides Dr. Balcer, are Elbert Bowen, Max Fuller, Severina Nelson, and Margaret Wood.

A second problem in the area served by the CSSA is that of the status of speech in the secondary schools. A committee headed by Dr. William Conboy began to investigate the situation in the late summer of 1957, and at the December convention this group reported upon its progress. Since the work is incomplete, the Executive Committee has recommended that all members be invited to continue until May 31, 1959.

The specific area under investigation is that of certification requirements in each of the thirteen states; later, when the facts are ascertained, the Committee expects to prepare recommendations concerning minimum and desirable certification provisions. The Executive Committee is hopeful that such a declaration of standards, particularly if the CSSA votes its approval in an annual business meeting, will be valuable to those individuals and groups which are trying to improve the situation in their own states.

Other members of the Committee on Secondary School Speech are William Buys, Marceline Erickson, Bea Olmstead, and Dorothy Weirich.

A third problem in speech education in recent years has been the tendency of certain groups to "splinter off" from the central area. At the national level those in speech and hearing hold their own convention, and those in theatre have considered a similar separation. For at least five years the Executive Committee of the CSSA has made an earnest attempt to keep all speech teachers together at the regional level. The last five presidents of the Association have been respectively a rhetorician, a speech scientist, a specialist in speech education, an expert in communication, and a theatre director. The next editor of the *Journal* will be from the field of oral interpretation, the present editor is an outstanding debate director, and the immediate past-editor, Dr. Paul Moore, is nationally known in correction and hearing. Similarly, in appointing committees, in submitting recommendations for the Legislative Assembly to the SAA Nominating Committee, and in planning programs, the Executive Committee has tried to maintain a balance among all interest groups as well as an equitable distribution by geographic areas and teaching levels.

This effort to preserve unity became even stronger during the Minneapolis Convention when the Committee on Liaison with Special Learned Associations was formed. The four members—Dr. Paul Carmack (chairman), Clyde Dow, David Hawes, and Ernest Henrikson—have received the respective endorsements of the national presidents of the American Forensic Association, the National Society for the Study of Communication, the American Educational Theatre Association, and the American Speech and Hearing Association.

This committee engaged in correspondence and some of its members met with the chairman, but there was no official written report at the De-

cember, 1957, convention. The following statement of the principal duties of this body, however, suggests its probable future areas of activity: (1) To maintain friendly relations between the CSSA and the several learned associations; (2) to suggest and screen potential CSSA research projects and to make recommendations concerning their financial support to the Executive Committee; and (3) to appoint program sponsors, through the CSSA president, for forensics, correction and hearing, theatre, and communication.

A fourth area of problems in the Midwest is that of liaison between the CSSA and the organizations of speech teachers in the several states. The principal duties of the Committee on Liaison with State Associations, which has Dr. Merrill Baker as chairman, are (1) to facilitate communication between the CSSA and the state societies, (2) to recommend ways in which the larger body can help the state organizations in furthering their activities, and (3) to avoid an overlapping of the work of the regional and the state groups.

The report of this committee at the most recent convention discussed several promising future developments. The Executive Committee already has acted favorably upon a request for $100 "for use as a subsidy to share the expenses of speakers at state association meetings, provided that these subsidies shall go only to members of the CSSA Executive Committee, and be paid only after alternative sources have been exhausted."[1] The purposes behind this action are twofold: first, to bring about closer relations between the CSSA and the state organizations; and second, to assist the states in preparing programs for their annual meetings.

A fifth problem—and one that all learned societies have—is that of improving the annual conference. Particularly in organizations in which the president serves a one-year term, the lack of continuity in leadership makes the maintenance of high quality difficult and renders steady improvement impossible. Following the practice of certain other associations, the CSSA at the Minneapolis Convention appointed a Convention Advisory Committee to consist ex-officio of its five most recent past presidents. With Dr. Martin Holcomb as chairman, this group systematically visited sectional meetings, discussed the program with a number of persons in attendance, and met several times.

At the close of the Chicago meeting Dr. Holcomb, with the assistance of John Dietrich, Charles Balcer, and Wilbur E. Moore, who also were able to be present, prepared a report that concludes with twelve recommendations. These, in precise form, are as follows:

1. A two-day convention, preferably on Friday and Saturday.
2. Only one general session, to be held on the afternoon of the first day of the convention, and to be concluded with the business meeting, including the presentation of the annual awards. We suggest a more favorable period for the general session in order to have a large attendance at that session —perhaps a two-hour period will be needed.
3. The representation of at least two areas in the general session, with addresses by recognized leaders in those areas.
4. The providing of at least one or two sectional meetings following the general session that will continue the consideration of the

topics discussed by the featured speakers.

5. A joint sectional meeting between the CSSA and an elementary-secondary school group.
6. The reduction of the number of meetings in Ministerial Training from two to one. Since the Speech Association of America now has sectional meetings in this area and since attendance at the CSSA meetings has been small, one sectional meeting seems consistent with the needs and the demands.
7. The planning of special tours in which local facilities are utilized as a part of the convention program.
8. The limitation of participation in sectional programs to one appearance per individual.
9. A request by the President of the CSSA in the April number of our *Journal* for papers or program abstracts to be considered for presentation at the next convention.
10. The preservation of a proper balance between research studies and practical aspects of speech.
11. The utilization of the first evening of the convention for programs. The Thursday evening sessions in Chicago were well attended.
12. The possible limitation of the number of sectional meetings during any one period to four.

Since the preceding report is only advisory, the actual planning of the Detroit convention is the responsibility of Dr. N. Edd Miller, who will be president for the year beginning on June 1, 1958. Acting upon Recommendation 9, your current president hereby invites all members of the Association to submit to Dr. Miller papers or abstracts that they consider worthy of presentation at the Detroit conference in April, 1959. As the general structure of the program will be complete by October 1, those who desire to contribute should send their materials before the close of the present academic year.

The Executive Committee of the Central States Speech Association, to conclude this President's Report, believes that the Minneapolis convention was statesmanlike in establishing the present committee structure and that the first set of annual reports at the Chicago conference shows excellent progress and promises much for the future. Additional problems and projects, however, will demand further delegated study and action. Partly because of the limited size of the organization, the officers of the CSSA believe that it should be possible for them to keep close contact with the membership. To all of you, your voices can and should be heard. Your criticisms and recommendations are earnestly solicited.

We Were In Error--

In the Fall, 1957, Issue we erroneously indicated that Bernard A. Landes is Director of the Speech Clinic at the University of Michigan. Such is not the case. Professor Landes is currently Director of the Speech Clinic at Texas Technological College in Lubbock, Texas, and was formerly Teaching Fellow and Senior Clinician, Speech Clinic, University of Michigan.

Our apologies to Dr. Harlan Bloomer, currently and for many years Director of the Speech Clinic, University of Michigan.

The Teacher of Speech in a Time of Crisis

N. Edd Miller

(EDITOR'S NOTE: THIS PAPER WAS PRESENTED AT THE DECEMBER, 1957, CENTRAL STATES SPEECH CONVENTION AS THE ADDRESS OF THE PRESIDENT-ELECT.)

Recent developments in international affairs have focused national attention on the status of American education. Not only professional educators, but members of local, state, and national governments, and, indeed, many thoughtful private citizens have raised questions about the role of our educational system in supplying this country with the leaders necessary to retain our nation's position in the world.

The first cry, of course, was for an increased emphasis on science, mathematics, and engineering in order to attempt to meet the immediate challenge of Sputnik. In recent weeks, this panic-induced movement has given way to the more thoughtful call for re-examination and possible improvement of the whole educational process. The entire curriculum at all levels is now, quite properly, being subjected to a careful appraisal. This, of course, is healthy, and should happen even without the threat of Soviet satellite supremacy.

Those of us who teach speech will inevitably find our work being examined, evaluate and, in some cases, seriously questioned. We should, then, ask ourselves the basic question: "What is the role of speech education in a time of crisis?"

Professionally, we have many gains to point to during the past fifty years. We have seen our work widely accepted, both academically and by the general public. We have seen our numbers grow from a small group to many thousands of dedicated teachers. We have seen the nature of the training we offer expand from a course or two in elocution or oratory to a great variety of offerings in all aspects of speech and related subjects—speech correction, audiology, radio, television, educational theater, semantics, discussion and many others. We have watched the development of strong professional associations in theater, forensics, speech correction and hearing, communication, and general speech. All these gains we must strive to maintain, if we believe, as we certainly do, that the work we perform is useful and valuable.

And the use and value of our work perhaps is more apparent today than at any time. Today's headlines make clear the need for leadership not only in science and technology, but in the general area of our chief concern—the inter-relationships of peoples, their ability to communicate effectively with each other. We must continue to be an essential part of the training of leaders of men, by providing an important element of their general cultural background and by providing them with the essential

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communication skills so vital to leadership in a democratic society.

We must not, however, become complacent and self-satisfied in the belief that our work is important nor merely assume that it will continue to grow. Let me suggest briefly three general courses of action which we must follow if we are to make our fullest contribution in this time of crisis.

First, we must be more demanding of our students. We must expect increasingly better performances from them. We must awaken them to the need for serious and determined effort in their work. We must, in brief, present a real challenge to them and demand that they meet it.

Second, we must be more demanding of the content of our courses. We must re-evaluate the kind of work we offer to be sure we have eliminated "frills" and that our work emphasizes worth-while content. We should be sure that we teach well the principles of effective communication, but we must also re-emphasize the importance of what is communicated. Our students must be taught to think about and discuss the important issues of our times.

And finally, we must be more demanding of ourselves. We must seek to improve our personal and professional development. We must work to strengthen our professional associations, since they represent us to the public and to other professional groups. In short, as individuals and as an organization, we must not be bystanders to the role of education in this time of crisis, rather, we should—and we will—provide some of the leadership in meeting the present challenge to our society.

PLAN TO ATTEND

The C.S.S.A. Convention

Hotel Statler, Detroit

April 10-11, 1959

Evaluation in the Speech Class -- Growth in Desirable Attitudes

Charles Balcer

One of the major activities of the speech teacher is evaluation (criticism) of student performance. As the class periods roll by, the speech teacher is plunged headlong into the task of evaluating the speaking of his students in a variety of circumstances. The teacher's evaluation of any student cannot be a deep-guarded secret, kept until the end of a grading period, to be sprung as a part of some "teacher vs. student" arrangement. Rather, the usefulness of constructive evaluation results from the giving students information in what and how to improve as soon as possible, and as often as possible. This quickly brings any teacher of speech to the realization that being a critic is one of his foremost and hardest jobs.

Since evaluation is primary to effective speech teaching, the teacher is confronted with the task of helping his students grow in desirable attitudes toward evaluation and criticism. If a student is to "grow" in "desirable attitudes" he must be aware of the importance of evaluation, aware of the standards being used in the evaluation, and aware of the relationship between the standards and his own performance.

The teacher will do well to point out to students early in the course how constant evaluation is necessary to all learning. Using examples from other classes, especially from school activities such as basketball, track, football, dramatics, journalism, cheerleading etc., and from out-of-school activities such as driving a car, on-the-job training, etc., the teacher can point out that we improve by having someone point out our strengths and weaknesses. We learn from others, both from their comments and from observing them. Realization of this need for constant evaluation will help promote a desirable attitude toward such evaluation in the speech classroom.

Another important factor that will help the teacher gain this desirable attitude toward evaluation is giving the student a voice in setting up the goals to be aimed for, or the standards to be met, in the performance. Too often the speech teacher acts much like the father who takes the family out for a Sunday drive. To any inquiry from the youngsters as to "Where are we going, Dad?," the answer is "Just for a ride." Too many speech teachers, like the father, take their students "for a ride." The teacher MUST know where he and the class are going (often, I'm afraid, the speech teacher does not!), and the students, also, must have a clear understanding of such aspects as the fundamentals of communication, their own needs and abilities, their achievements and potentialities. One method in achieving this is a discussion of effective communication by the class members in which they arrive, inductively, at a listing of

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those elements inherent to effective communication.

At the same time the teacher plans with his pupils what they are expected to learn, it must also be decided how the teacher and the class are going to determine whether or not they have learned it. At this point the class and teacher will do well to formulate criteria to be used in evaluation.

To be effective, this process of evaluation must be done by those concerned with the planning and the doing. To be effective, it must be continuous. Students develop by knowing why they are doing what they are doing, by setting up new goals or objectives, and by evaluating their efforts in achieving those goals or objectives.

A third important aspect in gaining a desirable attitude toward evaluation in the speech classroom is the role of the teacher in making evaluation. Of necessity, the teacher will be the first of the group to make any evaluation. The manner and tone in which this evaluation is given can help build a proper classroom atmosphere which will encourage the student to welcome the evaluation as a part of the learning experience.

It is not the intent to suggest that all the problems growing out of attitudes toward evaluation can be solved by the students knowing "where they are going" and by the teacher setting the proper tone of evaluation. The teacher will need to use a variety of techniques to aid his class in getting, keeping, and appreciating growth in desirable attitudes. Some suggested techniques are:

1. Substitute the word evaluation for criticism. Too many students interpret criticism as a destructive or tearing down process. By asking for an "evaluation" the teacher will tend to avoid getting purely negative comments.

2. Remember that class evaluation is only dangerous when no standards have been formed by the members. Use evaluation by individuals in your class only when you feel that your standards are understood and accepted.

3. Focus on one type of error or weakness, or sometimes, on achieving success in one aspect of speech in a particular performance rather than evaluating the total effect.

4. When you start student evaluation, have them comment on "content" of the speeches first. Later let them give an evaluation of "delivery."

5. A good speech assignment will reveal the nature and form the criticism should take after the performance.

6. When using your class as evaluators, use a variety of methods. Include such activities as: calling for volunteers; having the class rank students for a particular day, giving reasons for their rankings; using prepared rating forms for the students to complete; using the tape recorder and letting the class discuss a comparison between one student's previous performance and the current one; calling on students without notice; selecting a specific critic in advance; letting students write comments about the performances.

Once a teacher has shown his students the importance of effective evaluation to their improvement, their responsibility to each other, formulated with them standards to be used in evaluation, and helped them achieve in their performances on the basis of these standards, growth in desirable attitudes toward evaluation in the speech class is inevitable.

How Much Should Industry Practices Influence Our Teaching of Broadcasting

Robert Haakenson

"And all the dials would go 'click'." said Freshman Dan Ganter with an appropriate dial-switching gesture. "What we need is a good disc jockey, a really colorful student personality, spinning the hit tunes."

We were in the process of organizing the UMD Broadcasting Council at the University of Minnesota Duluth Branch. We had been offered a fifteen-minute weekly program time on one of the local radio stations. Someone proposed that we present a discussion program with students and faculty debating current issues. Ganter would have none of it: "What we need is a good disc jockey . . . spinning the hit tunes."

This seemingly insignificant remark brought me full cycle. I could recall myself as an underclassman fifteen years ago making the same type of remark. It occurred to me that I had gone from undergraduate to graduate study and on to teaching at three universities, everywhere encountering the same sentiment—"if you want to broadcast, do what the 'successful station' is doing." At the same time I experienced a growing conviction that many, many "successful" station practices have no place in any college curriculum.

Industry versus Education

This incident poses for me this perplexing question: in educating future broadcasters how much should we gear to the practices of the broadcasting industry? Reflecting over my study of the problem, I come to this general proposition: educators and broadcasters should together work out college broadcasting instruction that will fit young people for careers *but that will also lift their horizons.* The reasons are these: 1. Broadcasting education and industry practices are in many ways diametrically opposed. 2. Our failure to cooperate does a disservice to the students, to broadcasting, to our colleges and to our society. 3. Specific actions by both the educators and the broadcasters can result in college broadcasting instruction that will be a credit and benefit to all.

The problem can perhaps be stated this way. Students who are well-trained for the industry are apt not to be well-educated, and broadcasting students considered to be well-educated are apt not to be well-trained. The industry seems to want young people who are showy, glib, willing and able to find popular tastes at their lowest common denominator and to program to them, and who are not particularly concerned about sincerity. The educator wants to turn out young people who have sampled the finer things in literature, drama, music and ideas, who have an eagerness to share these experiences, and who have a high regard for genuineness and honesty. The conflict is oversimplified yet illustrated by a

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pair of epithets hurled back and forth —the industry's subservience to the *advertiser's dollar*, and the educator's uncompromising crusade for *uplift*.

Education Must Bear Its Share of Fault

This is not to say that industry is alone at fault. Teachers feel unpleasant pressures to copy industry practices, true, but too often we accept and teach them without questioning their validity. Let us therefore acknowledge first that a large part of the fault is our own—a blind copying of industry—too frequently copying the *worst* in industry.

One of my first exposures to this problem was during my undergraduate days at Augustana College, South Dakota. Station KSOO, Sioux Falls, offered a generous amount of program time. There was little discussion of what should be done. On the networks and commercial stations quiz programs were popular. So we had a quiz program. It didn't occur to us to turn first for our ideas to our primary affiliation, an institution of higher education, a liberal arts college rich in ideas and information. We took a quick look at what commercial broadcasting was doing and aped the industry. It was not only the program format, but continuity, theme, inflection patterns of the participants, the ad-libbed clichés of the emcee, the gimmicks.

I sang with a Reserve Midshipman choir over a South Bend, Indiana, radio station during 1942. Automatically we looked to the industry for our pattern and shaped a series that copied—to the letter—the standard practices of commercially-sponsored choruses then on the air. In retrospect one can see what originality in programming could have resulted if we had looked for our ideas not to industry but to the uniqueness of our situation, i.e., young men in intensive wartime training taking time out to sing.

In graduate school at the State University of Iowa the faculty did not hold industry practice inviolable, yet we learned to idolize the networks and a few large regional stations. The students who planned on going into broadcasting professionally (some of whom were in positions of influence in the station) held network performers as their idols and network policies as their creed. One enterprising young fellow tried repeatedly to introduce new programs that would capture the uniqueness of this educational institution. He was rebuffed. Few program ideas originated at the educational station which should have stimulated and sponsored experimentation. New programs that were attempted usually were inspired by programs pioneered on the commercial stations and networks. The extreme of network idolatry was the practice of another young man who listened slavishly to Lowell Thomas, memorizing and duplicating Thomas' vocal inflections.

In 1955 I enjoyed a two-week tour of naval training duty aboard the aircraft carrier, the USS ANTIETAM. I visited the "studio" of the ship's radio station, just forward of the hangar deck on the port side. I was almost sick to hear these young sailors aping in a sort of helpless fashion the worst of commercial broadcasting—meaningless, inane, stereotyped introductions to thin, whiney pop-tunes. Certainly more of a defense can be made for these sailors than for the college broadcasters, yet it is dis-

turbing to think what an informational and cultural service could have been performed for the hundreds of ANTIETAM sailors. Instead they got silly chatter and shoddy music.

An incident that was entirely spur-of-the-moment typifies for me education's failure to discriminate good and bad in industry practice. At one of the early WAAM-TV Regional Television Seminars[1] in Baltimore we heard a case history of a "success story" by a representative of the Fortune advertising agency. As a tribute to this accomplishment the college broadcasters and industry people present were asked to unite in singing the stirring ballad—accompanied on the guitar by the man who had composed the tune—the Ballentine's Ale commercial!

Student broadcasters at the University of Minnesota Duluth Branch are not even on the air and they have prejudged against serious information and music in favor of "a good disc jockey . . . spinning the hit tunes."

Industry Shares in the Fault

At this time we might pause to say, the foregoing may all be true but is the broadcasting industry to be blamed for the spinelessness and parasitism of the South Dakotans, Midshipmen, Iowans, carrier sailors and Duluthians? Yes, surprisingly, the industry has a responsibility. Consider the broadcasting students at Iowa, for example. The faculty did not require them to mimic industry practices. But the students knew what was going on. Above all they kept tabs on the recent alumni. They knew which of them prospered and why. The students projected themselves a year or two ahead, to their graduation, and on into the broadcasting industry. They saw what they must do to prosper in the field they had chosen.

This industry pressure was not quite so subtle at Temple University. The presence of a large number of metropolitan stations in Philadelphia kept the students keenly aware of industry standards. The teacher could decry the falsity of high pressure selling, exaggerated advertising claims, the unimaginative copying of one another by program directors, the willingness to program three and four continuous hours of pops music if that seemed to deliver a rating ("all we do is give them what they want,") the platitudes and stereotypes of the broadcasting personality. Unfortunately, ability in these regrettable traits produces revenue for the station, and prestige and financial reward for the performer. The greatest pressure to copy the industry seems to be to copy the worst of the industry. The Philadelphia stations did not ask faculty to recommend crack documentary writers, students skilled in classical music, competent discussion moderators, students able to produce radio and television dramas. We wanted to prepare our students for careers but the industry did not offer such jobs. We could not in conscience offer college training in many of the skills the station would reward. Further, our attempts to decry these lamentable practices failed to impress the students who could point to immediate instances of these very practices meaning great "success" for former students.

Perhaps the most dramatic demonstration for me of pressures to conform to industry practices occurred at the University of Missouri. In one of my classes were several young men

who had had a variety of broadcasting experiences. Most had worked at small stations around the state of Missouri. Some had worked for, or auditioned for, some of the regional stations in St. Louis and Kansas City. Some were at the time working for local stations. Hearing their patently artificial, sledge-hammer announcing, I would urge them to genuineness and sincerity.

"That's all good and well, but I want to hold a job. Station managers want a pitch, hard sell. You've got to punch it."

I would try to counter by pointing out that even some of their own industry luminaries, idols for example like Godfrey and Garroway, were exponents at least of low pressure.

"Sure, they're low pressure. But they've arrived. They can get away with it. Low pressure is for hacks who aren't going anywhere and for odd-balls who have already arrived. I want sponsors and talent fees. When I audition I've got to be able to sell."

The University of Missouri's television station is one of three unique television stations that are educationally-owned and commercially-operated. The commercial operation included at one time affiliation with all four television networks. It was not surprising, therefore, to find emphasis on industry practice. Yet again here was the disappointment of finding a station affiliated with a great institution of higher learning but sensitive first to network policies and commercial considerations.

Textbooks Innocently Offend

Even our texts may innocently contribute to these pressures we feel to conform to industry practice. The photographs, schedules, scripts, continuity, sketches, diagrams, instances and examples—almost all are drawn from industry. This in itself might not be condemning except for the tacit implication that this is the last word. "This is what the industry does; this is it." If only there was a hint or a whisper that the authenticity and perfection of these exhibits might be questioned!

Industry Practices versus Educational Ideals

The basic conflict, then, is that the worst of industry practice is diametrically opposite our educational ideals. Commercial broadcasting, at its worst, endorses negative values, e.g., exploitation of popular tastes no matter how crude they may be; the finding and/or copying of a formula that is delivering audience ratings and riding it to its death; presenting only the serious and informational broadcasting that is obligatory; and, above all, "punching it" and "hoking it up" to clutch the advertiser's *dollar.*

The college teacher of broadcasting wants his student to go forward and employ the wonderful mass media of radio and television to bring to the entire citizenry the best that has been written, spoken or created. He wants these media to entertain, and, in so doing, to draw heavily on both the classics and the newest in experimental broadcasting. He wants the media to transmit vast amounts of serious, useful information. He wants the media to serve a great educational function. He wants his broadcasters above all else to be *genuine* and to disport themselves with dignity. He wants his broadcasters to be crusaders, bringing to the great unwashed the lesser known fine things. He wants, in a word, *uplift.*

Special Problem Regarding Networks

In late December, 1955, I called on the CBS and NBC West Coast personnel directors[2] in Los Angeles to raise two specific questions: 1. How should we be training our people to equip them for network careers? and, 2. How can these aspiring broadcasters break into the networks? The answer to the second, from both directors, precluded the necessity of answering the first, "Aspiring broadcasters can break into the network by starting at the bottom, in guest relations, mail room, script duplication, or other clerical or stenographic."

"In other words, the same as if they hadn't had college training at all?"

"That's about right."

This is not the same problem as the basic one just discussed, the philosophical differences between industry practice and educational ideals. But it is another example of the offset between college broadcasting education and industry practice.

Loss to Students, Broadcasting, Colleges and Society

While this rift continues, certain tragic losses are evident. For the student, whose welfare we must consider first, a large part of his four-year college experience is shorn of future value. For the college or university—either it fails the student or fails its own ideals. Either way it fails to bring to bear the impact of higher learning on the all-important mass media of radio and television. Broadcasting loses a sizeable pool of highly talented persons eager to go to work. If they fit awkwardly, industry must retrain them to utilize their abilities. In the larger sense, failure to utilize these talents will tend to perpetuate the imbecility and paralysis that mark the worst of broadcasting. Society's loss when the broadcasting industry and college broadcasting education do not come together is the failure to elevate broadcasting careers to professional status. Moreover, one more huge obstacle is placed in the way of society's being served by radio and television that represents the most and the best of entertainment, information and education.

Educators and Broadcasters Must Cooperate

In meetings from New York to Los Angeles of groups ranging from state to national levels, I have heard these problems of education and broadcasting discussed. Educators have railed against the crass commercialism of broadcasters until, for example, veterans at the Ohio State Institute for Education by Radio and Television say that picking on the industry is no longer even good sport. There have been commendable efforts to reconcile educators and broadcasters, such as the WAAM-TV Regional Seminars, but the full resolution of the problem is nowhere in sight.

There are many specific actions that can be taken now. Educators must explain to students the nature and cause of the rift. They must inspire students to work within that framework while trying to raise standards. Educators must rid themselves of their snobbish aloofness to commercial excesses. Above all they must confront the broadcasters with the problem, seeking their help. Educators must take the initiative in establishing liaison with commercial interests — networks, stations, agencies, broadcasting associations. Steps might be taken in this order: 1) to openly identify the differences, 2) to

confront the broadcasters with these differences, 3) to establish the party at fault in each case, and, 4) to work cooperatively, leaning over backward, to reconcile the differences.

Specific actions that may be taken by the broadcasting industry include more energetic recruiting from college broadcasting ranks. The industry must reduce its demands for high pressure salesmanship ability from these candidates. It should put a higher value on the more important abilities and traits of character. The industry should encourage and support experimentation in new programs. Commercial broadcasters might well underwrite program experiments by the college broadcasters. Commercial broadcasters should help the reformers wage war on the clichés, stereotyped personalities, false claims, indeed on the phoneyness of all types that pervades much of commercial broadcasting today. The networks should develop a plan for absorbing good college broadcasters at a level commensurate with their attainments.

Commercial broadcasters might take these steps: 1) to assess personnel needs and determine which positions might best be filled by college broadcasters, 2) to communicate those needs to educators, 3) hear educators' complaints regarding excessive industry practices, and, 4) to cooperate fully in permitting college broadcasting education to be broad and inspiring as well as practical.

Today's Enemies Are Natural Allies

It is regrettable that broadcasting education and industry practice should be cast in the role of opponents. This is likely more true in broadcasting than in any comparable profession—law, medicine, engineering, journalism. The college training program should be directly preliminary to progress in the specialty. Such a smooth transition is not accomplished by industry practices that are anathema to broadcasting education, and vice versa.

We have discovered that broadcasting education and industry practice are lamentably out of step and that this sad state is severely damaging to all concerned, particularly the student. But it is encouraging to realize that a direct attack on the problem from both sides should bring great and immediate gains for all.

Footnotes

[1] These WAAM-TV Regional Television Seminars are one of the finest efforts to resolve the difference between educators and broadcasters.

The First Annual Regional Television Seminar was held in February, 1951. Station WAAM-TV plays host in Baltimore to college broadcasters of the Eastern Seaboard and invites top broadcasters and influential people from government.

At the Second Annual Regional Television Seminar, February 15–16, 1952, the NARTB preliminary survey, "Station Management Takes a Look at Television Jobs," was distributed, and the role of the college broadcaster in the employment picture was discussed.

[2] Mr. Clarence Eliason, Jr., Director of Personnel, Columbia Broadcasting System, West Coast; and Mr. William H. Craig, Assistant Manager, Personnel, National Broadcasting Company, Los Angeles 28.

It is interesting to note in the "Job Inventory" of the National Broadcasting Company how many of the jobs that call for "college" or "college degree" in the qualifications, are jobs that are filled "by transfer or promotion from within the company" or call for extensive experience (e.g., "Programming and Production" job listings, pp. 15–24.)

The Need for Developing Responsible Speaking

Carl A. Dallinger

The teaching of speech is, or should be, deeply rooted in democratic philosophy. When properly taught, speech training provides educational experience fundamental to participation in a democratic society. But, because there is considerable confusion between the anarchy of an exaggerated individualism and the responsibility imposed upon the individual in a democratic society, such a philosophy of speech demands of the instructor and the students that they have a clear understanding of the basic assumptions of democracy and how it is supposed to operate.

Democracy is a way of life, yes. But democracy is also a form of government. It is a form of government largely differentiated from other forms of government with respect to where power and control are lodged. Anarchy, basically, is an absence of government; it imposes no responsibilities on the individual or the group. It recognizes no allegiance; it sanctions irresponsibility. On the other hand dictatorship, by an individual or a ruling clique, says, "Only a few can be entrusted with power. The great mass of people are incapable of controlling themselves. We (or I) must govern." So come the stinging blows of tyranny as the common man is whipped into submission.

However, it is the assumption of democracy that the individual is capable of and in large measure can be entrusted with governing himself, and that he is also capable of participating in the decisions which affect the common welfare. It assumes that the individual is intelligent enough, informed enough, is willing to act with a high sense of responsibility. It assumes that the individual does not need tyrannous restraints from without because he has inherent controls from within. This is the genius, these are the fundamental assumptions of democracy.

If we doubt that this be true, we need only to look to our history and remind ourselves that the full privileges of democracy, particularly the franchise, have not always and are not even now extended to all of our citizens. Why was it, for example, in our early history that the right to vote was extended only to those who owned property? Because it was felt that those without property would act in an irresponsible fashion. Why was it that it was not until 1920 that the federal government granted women the right to vote? Was it not because it was felt that women, frail creatures, were mentally and physically incapable of discharging the responsibilities inherent in electing our leaders and deciding public issues? What is the argument over extending the right to vote to 18 year olds? Is it not a question of whether they are mature enough to act with responsibility in exercising the right of franchise? Our history has been characterized by a gradual extension of the full rights of democracy to more and more people as we persuaded ourselves that more and more people could be trusted to act in a responsi-

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ble manner. And the basic impulse to public education in America has been an effort to guarantee ourselves an informed electorate capable of discharging the responsibilities of citizenship.

Now what has all this got to do with the teaching of speech? Just this. One of the great privileges democracy extends to its citizens is freedom of speech. It extends this freedom on the assumption that the decisions reached will be better if we can talk freely with each other. It is our conviction that we must be able to say what we think without fear of reprisal.

But it is this very freedom that can lead to abuse, that has led some of us to the opinion that we can think and say anything we please. That anyone should challenge this assumption we regard as an affront to us personally and a denial of an inalienable right. However, anarchy of thought and word is no more permissible in a democracy than is anarchy of action. The decisions of a democracy will be right and wise to the degree that they are based upon reliable information and valid reasoning. These ends are not served by irresponsible talk. They are served to the degree that we govern our speech by a wholesome respect for information, for truth, and a genuine concern for the common good.

This is the philosophy, then, that must dominate our teaching of speech in the classroom and should undergird our extracurricular speech activities. It is this philosophy that relates the task of teaching speech to the preservation of the democratic way of life. What we are trying to develop is *responsible talk.* Irresponsible utterance is our enemy. What we want is speech that is governed first and foremost by the student himself, governed by and out of his respect for the obligations which the freedom of democracy imposes upon him.

How, then, do we sometimes encourage irresponsible speech? By permitting students to generalize beyond the limits of their information, by condoning and even rewarding glibness, by failing to insist that the right to speak is earned by discharging the obligation to be informed on the topic the student proposes to discuss. We encourage it in debate and discussion when we look upon these activities as games in which we select as debatable a proposition as we can find and use it as an intellectual trampoline upon which we perform mental gymnastics with evidence and argument. We encourage it in debate when we permit students to distort or misconstrue evidence in an effort to win. We encourage it when we permit oral plagiarism, condoning as a speech a warmed over *Reader's Digest* article which the student attempts to pass off as his own wisdom, without ever acknowledging the source whence his ideas came. We encourage it when we permit students to ask their listeners to accept a position on a question to which they are unwilling to commit themselves. These and other kinds of intellectual sloppiness encourage irresponsible talk.

What, then, can we do to develop that ruggedness of mind and concept of purpose that is congenial to the proper role of speech in a free society? First of all, we can take time to interpret and help the students grasp the basic tenets and responsibilities of democracy, such as we have considered here. Particularly should we concern ourselves with the obligations of freedom of speech. Persistently should we do battle

against the perversions of this freedom, those perversions that regard the platform as a ramp from which we can launch any unguided or misguided mental missile, which the speaker hopes will strike with effectiveness an unsuspecting public. We can relate freedom of speech to responsibility in speech.

Secondly, we can remind ourselves and our students that democracy assumes that it will be an informed, not an ignorant, populace that will do the talking and deciding. Reminding ourselves that we must stand always in the clear sunlight of freedom to discuss without fear of being imprisoned for what we say, still we obligate ourselves to come to the market place of ideas with minds full, buttressed with knowledge. Thus we should encourage our students to reflect upon the significance of the knowledge and experience they have already accumulated, to read and observe, to do research, to develop inquiring minds, so that when they come before our classes to make their speeches they can say honestly, "I know what I am talking about."

Again, with kindness but with firmness, we can grapple with those sweeping generalizations, those intellectual leaps that students like to take, that seem to divorce completely inference from evidence. We can keep the students' minds focused on the details, the facts, the figures, the examples and illustrations that make a conclusion tenable. Furthermore, we can demonstrate to the student that his ideas become stronger, not weaker, when he acknowledges in his speech the sources from which his information came. There is some strange notion that it is a sign of weakness if we admit that we got any of our ideas or information from someone else. It is a betrayal of our rugged individualism, a denial of the philosophy of the self-made man. We must develop habits of basing our opinions and judgments on adequate, reliable information.

And in our debating and discussion activities—instead of regarding these as medieval, intellectual tournaments in which our teams of forensic knights attempt, by means of tricky turns and thrusts of their mental lances, to unseat their opponents and dump them ignominiously on the ground in front of the spectators, in order to ride off with a chalice or medal caressed by the honeyed words of some school administrator or tournament director —we view these activities as opportunities to struggle with an issue of real concern to our society. If we are to make a wise decision on the issue, every reasonable, valid point of view must have its advocate so that the public can be informed and thus make a wise decision. Whatever rewards we may win, then, will have the added value of our having served the cause, not the destruction of democracy.

The teaching of speech is rooted deeply in the democratic tradition. In most of the countries of the world our subject would not be included in the educational program. The foreigner frequently is amazed to find *speech* in our curricula. Our own colleagues often are amazed that in our teaching we are as much or more concerned with ideas as with posture and pronunciation. But if we can lead our students to some better understanding of the essence of democracy and to some concept of the importance of responsible speaking in the democratic way of life, then we may find some satisfaction in knowing that we are not teaching in a vacuum, but that we are performing a real service in the preservation of our traditions.

Ethos, Eisenhower, and the 1956 Campaign

Austin J. Freeley

On November 6, 1956 the American people went to the polls and declared that they liked Ike—and the Democratic Party.

Eisenhower's nine million vote plurality was second only to the triumph of Roosevelt over Landon in 1936. Eisenhower, however, unlike almost every successful Presidential candidate in modern history, was unable to carry his party with him into control of either House of Congress.

In 1952 Eisenhower was a political novice. His candidacy was in the hands of the Dewey wing of the party who used him as a means to break the power of the Taft wing of the party. Political observers at the 1952 Republican Convention in Chicago described Eisenhower as naive, unsure of himself, and politically inept.

In the four years between 1952 and 1956, Eisenhower had been transformed from an eager novice to a skilled master of politics. In San Francisco in 1956 it was Eisenhower who dominated the Republican Convention—dominated it to a degree that Roosevelt, with his years in the Presidency, had never attained over a Democratic Convention. William S. White reported:

> There was at San Francisco a sense of shocked and almost dazed disbelief at any suggestion that any slightest wish of the President's in any connection might be questioned.[2]

The Taft wing—and all wings of the party—could vie with one another only in declaring their loyalty to Eisenhower.

Like Roosevelt, Eisenhower had been able to develop an enormous personal following; unlike Roosevelt he did not evoke a legion of political enemies, but again unlike Roosevelt, the magic of Eisenhower was not transferable in decisive amounts to the rest of his party's ticket.

The commanding fact in the success of Eisenhower's campaign was his tremendously high *ethos* in the eyes of the electorate. Baker described an Eisenhower audience in these words:

> And how they smile as they stand to hail him—it is an expression approaching pure ecstasy, almost of adoration. Men beam with delight and middle-aged women, hands clasped delightedly before their faces or applauding, assume the same look of ecstatic transport that their daughters wear when they are being "sent" by Elvis Presley.[3]

White gives these requirements for a Presidential candidate—his specifications might be taken for a paraphrase of the classical concept of *ethos:*

> He must, first of all, give off consistently the subtle emanations of leadership; men and women must be convinced not only that he wishes them well, but that he is really capable of guarding and promoting their general welfare and designs. He must suggest a kind of dignity—again a loose and difficult word, but one meaning in this context a sapient and knowing strength that is able fairly readily to overcome the diffi-

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culties that beset nations as well as individuals.

He must personify a tradition of one kind or another—whether the *noblesse oblige* of Roosevelt, the combative earthiness of Truman or the confident sunniness of Eisenhower. Finally, of course, he must know how to deal with many other men—effectively and if necessarily harshly, as in the cases of Roosevelt and Truman, or with a kind of complicated and also effective geniality, as in the case of Eisenhower.[4]

In building his *ethos* in the public mind, Eisenhower has skillfully created a "father image"— term used by his opponents and supporters to indicate that he has placed himself substantially above the strife of the political campaign.[5]

Krock believed that Eisenhower triumphed on his popular image. Krock's words provide an interesting parallel to the classical concept of *ethos:*

> This was the President of the popular image, as the muscular guardian of peace, the blunders and hesitations either forgotten or condoned on the argument that Eisenhower's great acts are his own, his mistakes are those of his ministers. . . . He is a man of goodwill. His mind is alert, very able and discerning, and capable of reducing complex issues to their essentials. He is intolerant of any lapse of personal integrity. He is genial and compassionate.[6]

This public image was so firmly built that Republican House Leader Martin said:

> Personally, I think Eisenhower would have been elected without much campaigning, but his tremendous majority was undoubtedly helped by the fine personal appeal he made to the people.[7]

In considering Eisenhower's development of *ethos* in his campaign speeches I shall base my analysis on the text of Eisenhower's speeches furnished me by White House Press Secretary James C. Hagerty and shall consider *ethos* as it is set out by Aristotle.[8]

Eisenhower apparently sought to develop the factor of friendship by almost invariably opening and closing each speech with specific references to his immediate audience and by expressing his appreciation for the welcome he had received. He included the customary references to party candidates who were present, and usually added a word of praise, or an expression of friendship for them. He made reference to figures of special local interest; in the Mid Western and Northern states he usually referred to Lincoln; in Virginia he referred to Washington, Lee, Wilson, and Marshall; in Philadelphia to Franklin. Frequently he mentioned a previous visit to the city where he was speaking and included some word of praise for that city or area.

In approximately one half of his speeches he referred to himself as "President," "Commander in Chief," or "Party Leader." He sought to assure his audiences that he was using the most recent evidence, and on several occasions he based his assertions on government statistics which would be published within the next day or two. In many of his speeches he seemed to develop factors which would establish the Aristotelian virtues of prudence and wisdom. An apparent effort to develop these factors was particularly noticeable as he dealt with such issues as the draft and the H-bomb.

Throughout his speeches he evi-

denced a concern for the individual, and for such matters as peace, prosperity, and progress.

Religious overtones were present in about one half of his speeches in the form of references to the Diety, to churches and synagogues, or to religion generally.

Factors which would tend to build *ethos* were not confined to any one part of his speech—although his introductions and conclusions seemed to be specifically designed for this purpose—but were present throughout the speech.

The health issue was at least a potentially important issue of the campaign. It related to Eisenhower's *ethos* as it related to his competency; his ability to carry out the duties of the Presidency. Eisenhower did not speak on this issue, but he succeeded to a large degree in removing this issue from the campaign through the medium of his speeches. When he came before the public in person or on television his appearance was such as to minimize the health issue. Television critic Jack Gould reported:

> The Republicans probably benefited most from television. With millions able to see for themselves that President Eisenhower is able and vigorous, the health issue has not materialized.[9]

Eisenhower had originally planned a very limited campaign consisting of only eight speeches.[10] Had he adhered to this plan following his two serious illnesses, the health issue might well have become more important.[11] Instead, however, he travelled about the country, covering approximately 17,000 miles and delivered twelve major speeches.

The Republican Party was well aware of Eisenhower's *ethos* and sought to capitalize on it. House Minority Leader Martin reported that Eisenhower "is generally sent where it is felt his presence will inspire the electorate . . ."[12]

On the basis of the evidence now available to us, we may conclude:

1) Eisenhower's speeches were probably a significant factor in the tremendous plurality which he received.
2) The factors likely to develop Eisenhower's *ethos* were carefully developed throughout all of his campaign speeches.
3) While it is not known to what extent Eisenhower may be familiar with rhetorical theory, his development of the factors of *ethos* was consistent with the classical concept of *ethos*.

Footnotes

[1] Based on a paper presented at the 1956 Convention of the Speech Association of America, Chicago, Illinois, December 27, 1956. This paper also treated with some matters of logical proofs, emotional proofs, and some problems of authorship. Limitations of space, however, do not permit consideration of these factors here.

[2] William S. White, *The New York Times*, September 23, 1956.

[3] Russell Baker, *The New York Times*, October 21, 1956.

[4] William S. White, *op. cit.*

[5] See: Eugene Burdick, "The Perfect President," *This Week Magazine*, January 1, 1956, for a discussion of the "father image" as it relates to Eisenhower and other Presidents.

[6] Arthur Krock, *The New York Times*, November 11, 1956.

[7] Joseph W. Martin, personal letter to the author, December 4, 1956.

[8] Aristotle, *Rhetoric*, I, 9 and II, 4.

[9] Jack Gould, *The New York Times*, October 28, 1956.

[10] Not for attribution letter. Personal letter to the author, December 18, 1956, from a well informed source, not Congressman Martin, who made certain information available for use in this paper on the condition that it not be attributed to him or to his office.

[11] The third serious illness of Eisenhower during his administration came in 1957, well after the close of the 1956 campaign.

[12] Joseph W. Martin, *op. cit.*

Training, Place and Function of Speech Clinicians in Public Schools

Bryng Bryngelson

Frequently superintendents and school curriculum supervisors are confronted with the problem of speech care for the handicapped child. It is now possible in most states to get a speech specialist by means of state aid. Minnesota has offered such aid for the past thirty years, and the University of Minnesota has for many years offered a four-year training program for students whose primary interest is to work in a public school program of speech correction.

First I would like to indicate the type of academic study speech clinicians possess. At our own state University, the student graduates at the end of four years with a Bachelor of Science degree in speech pathology, granted in the Department of Education.

Freshman and Sophomore Years

1. A basic course in either Zoology or Biology
2. Physiology, Anatomy
3. General and Laboratory Psychology

Junior Year

1. Mental Hygiene or Personality Development
2. Phonetics
3. Child, Adolescent, Educational, Abnormal Psychology
4. Speech Pathology (Introduction to Speech correction; Stuttering; Voice and Articulatory Disorders)

Senior Year

1. Anatomy of the Ear, Audiometry, Lip Reading
2. Statistics, Principles of Mental Measurement, Mental Testing
3. Clinical Methods, Supervised Practice (220 clock hours)
4. Electives—in Social Case Methods, Remedial Reading, Psycho-Educational Clinic, Humanities, Anthropology, Political Science, History, etc.

If the graduated student is able to maintain at least a better than average grade in the above course of study and possesses a fairly well-balanced personality together with an urge to be of help to the speech handicapped, she would be adequately prepared to do speech correction work in a public school. Her training and motivation is very different from that of a classroom teacher, and therefore, she views herself as a kind of specialist comparable to a school nurse, school psychologist or counselor. True, she teaches, but does not teach academic subject matter. Her function in a sense is an adjunct to subject matter orientation. She deals with the articulation, fluency and expression of knowledge. And what might be more important, she works toward the development of the whole personality of the child with a speech difference. She views the specific deviation in light of the child's atti-

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tudes, personal evaluations, social consciousness and the projected self in, and out of, whatever culture the child is maturing, growing and developing.

Many of the problems harassing the speech clinician in a public school arise because of a lack of understanding, on the part of the superintendent and curricular supervisors, of the services the clinician is trained to render.

It is not at all uncommon that the speech clinician is expected to give hearing and mental tests to the entire school. Or because a course in remedial reading is listed in her course of study, she is expected to manage clinically, reading problems. The orientation in remedial reading, audiometrics and mental testing does not qualify a speech clinician as an expert in those areas. She is able, however, to evaluate I.Q. scores and audiometric results of her speech patients. She understands some of the reading deviations when there is also a speech involvement in the case, but she is not, with only one course in remedial reading, qualified to treat all types of reading problems.

The speech clinician is first and foremost a speech expert and should not be urged by school administrations or elementary supervisors to do more than her training warrants.

There is always the bugaboo of "case load." May I remind you that no longer do we have to sell speech correction to the public on the basis of the number of speech defectives found on the school survey and later placed on the clinic roll. This may have been necessary for publicity purposes when speech correction was in its infancy thirty years ago. It probably did sound good to hear of a case load of three hundred. In recent years the value of our work has been proved by results, which have come as a result of spending more concentrated time on fewer cases. State departments often list one hundred cases as a maximum, but do not list a minimum. The setting up of the case load is not the function of the school administrator but of the speech clinician. In Minnesota the current case load ranges from thirty patients to sixty-five. Working with this number of youngsters three or four times a week in thirty minute periods makes it possible for a fairly rapid turnover so that the waiting list doesn't seem to suffer from neglect. But parents and administrators must understand this phase of the clinician's profession. They must also understand that some cases cannot be corrected in three or ten weeks. Many will need to be kept on the current clinic roll for a longer period

In 1946 I began conducting speech surveys in the public schools of Minnesota where there had been no speech correction work done. With help of the classroom teachers, eight schools have now been completed. I intend to publish these results later. The methods of such surveys were indicated in an article by the author in the March, 1951, issue of the *Southern Speech Journal.*

In going over the data I find that the number of speech defectives diminishes quite noticeably through the elementary grades. This is especially true of the functional articulatory cases. I presume one can say that maturation is responsible for this. At the junior and senior high

school level, however, the number of speech defectives remain quite constant. In other words, when a child has a defect at the junior high school age, one can be fairly sure that it will not clear up without specialized help. The types that appear to remain at this level are stuttering, cleft palate speech, cerebral palsy, hearing disorders, severe lateral "s's," lisps and oral inaccuracy.

These findings lead me to the conviction that more concentrated clinical work should be done at the secondary school level than has been done in the past. This does not mean that the speech clinician would neglect the speech cases in the lower grades. It would be a matter of a differential diagnosis of cases in the elementary grades that would determine the selection of children for clinical help. One can be quite certain that the majority of functional articulatory cases would be corrected by the time the pupil reaches junior high school. An adequate program of mental hygiene on the part of the classroom teacher would aid in avoiding personality aberrations due to a feeling of being different. In many instances the child is not even aware of a difference. If the child is not made aware of his difference, I suspect maturation would take place more easily. The introduction of classroom mental hygiene to the teacher is a part of the speech clinician's function at the elementary level.

Another reason for more concentrated clinical work at the secondary level is that the pupil is old enough to understand his speech status. His evaluation of it in terms of social implications means that his motivation is excellent for treatment. Furthermore, his sojourn throughout high school would be made much more wholesome were he free from his speech defect.

In many schools in Minnesota such programs as I have described have been in operation long enough to be evaluated. They have worked and are working successfully at the present time.

A speech clinician, besides having a well-furnished office or clinic room, should have access to a tape recorder, large mirrors, an examination cabinet, audiometer, typewriter, etc. She should have time in her schedule for the writing of case summaries, to have conferences with teachers, nurses and parents. One day a week might well be set aside for these important functions. In smaller cities, home calls are recommended. She should, early in her school position, speak on the subject of her work to the school staff and the P.T.A. association. She should have time free to visit with the classroom teachers whose pupils are in the clinic. A good deal of excellent follow-up work can be effected with this cooperation. The speech clinicians should have time off for national and sectional meetings of the American Speech and Hearing Association. Being a member of the association and a subscriber to the *Journal* is not enough to keep her on her professional toes for growth and advancement in this field.

Because she is a specialist, she must guard against possible suspicions that therefore she is not an integral part of the school system and community. If she really feels that her job in the education of youth is an important one, she will gladly attend staff meetings, P.T.A.'s, and

participate in community activities. Nothing can kill speech correction faster than an aloofness on the part of the clinician.

And finally, she should not in any way ignore the fact that many of the personnel with whom she is functioning have not only a wealth of training, but a great deal of experience with children. They should not by the therapist's attitude be made to feel that because she is young and in a new field that she knows all the answers. If this occurs, the position as a public school clinician is jeopardized. She is then on the defensive. Her first and most important function in a school system is to establish rapport with those with whom she is going to work. She should find out their strengths, hobbies, ideas, etc., and in time, with a wholesome relationship operating, they in turn will discover hers. She should remember that no matter how brilliant and capable she is in her subject matter and field of operation, no one will ever discover this if by her attitude she builds a fence around herself. Once she has sold herself to her colleagues she is on her way toward free, gracious and professional accomplishment in our education area well worthy of the name—Speech Pathology.

It is highly recommended that a speech correctionist who must diagnose and treat speech handicapped children of all types have the background and training which four years in a University offers in this specialized area of Education. The State Department of Special Education in Minnesota has just recently, by law, added 13 hours to the original 20 hours required for a certificate to practice speech correction in the public schools who receive state aid.

The present requirements are as follows:

a. Graduation from a four-year course with a major in speech pathology

b. Graduation from a four-year course with a certificate to teach in the elementary or secondary school and an approved minor, or its equivalent including college credits as provided below:

1. Personal Development through Speech (3) or Mental Hygiene (3) Phonetics (3)

2. Introduction to Speech Correction (3) Speech Pathology (6)

3. Hearing Disorders (3) Audiometry and Hearing Aids (3)

4. Lip Reading and Lip Reading Methods (3)

5. Clinical Methods and Practice in Speech Pathology (9)

Recent Research on the Prognosis and Evaluation of Teaching Effectiveness

J. C. Gowan

The purpose of this article is to present conclusions and implications of some recent research on teacher personality and teaching effectiveness. Before turning directly to these findings, it seems advisable to make clear certain basic assumptions:

1. There is probably no such thing as "teaching personality" which may be considered as a trait factor. There may be, however, specific behaviors which assist and others which impede the emotional climate necessary for the full range of learnings.

2. Measurement of teacher and student behavior is the best method by which to study teacher personality and effectiveness.

3. The greatest stumbling blocks in the evaluation of teaching are lack of a common set of criteria of effective teaching and the lack of ways of measuring teaching skill.

Let us review the methods by which teaching performance has been measured in the past. There have been two avenues of approach, ratings and tests. By a rating we mean the judgment of one person about the performance of another. Such ratings may in turn be divided into three categories. First are those made by authority figures, such as supervisors, principals or superintendents in the field. Second are those made by peer figures who may be other teachers in the same school, or in the case of trainees, their classmates. This category may include trained observers from the outside. Evidence indicates that peer ratings are more objective than authority figure ratings because the social distance is smaller and the need for "cover-up" on the part of the teacher is less.[5] Finally, there are ratings made of the teacher by the pupils themselves. These appear to have even greater validity.

Turning to tests, those used to evaluate teachers have been restricted to three major areas; those which measure the teacher's ability, background and subject knowledge; those which measure the teacher's interests and personality; and those which measure pupil gain.

There have been at least two important types of difficulty associated in varying amounts with both ratings and tests. First, both are apt to yield results which do not correlate very highly with one another. In addition, the measuring devices which seem to be the most valid turn out to be the most difficult ones to administer, and from which it is hardest to get reliable data. Examples of the two types of difficulty may be helpful.

Take, for instance, the problems implicit in ratings by authority figures. How good are such ratings? One approach to this problem would be to inquire whether the authority figures agree among themselves. A recent study showed correlations not

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significantly greater than zero between student teaching grades, placement officer evaluations, and field ratings of administrators in this regard.[1] It also indicated that, of a number of measures of teaching effectiveness, the only variable which correlated significantly with field rating was the socio-economic status of the teacher.

An example of another kind of difficulty in evaluating teaching is found in studies using the criterion of pupil gain. There are numerous logical reasons why increments of pupil gain present one of the best theoretical ways of measuring teacher effectiveness, for unless teacher behavior results in a change in pupil behavior, no learning has taken place. The practical side of measuring this gain, however, is fraught with the greatest difficulty. For one thing, in most schools, children come in contact with more than one teacher. For another, we may easily lose the whole point by measuring pupil gain in too restricted an area. Pupil gains in knowledge and skills, while important and relatively easy to measure by achievement tests, may not, in the long run, be as important as corresponding gains in attitudes and self-understandings, which are relatively difficult to measure.

We come then to the position that gains in attitudes and ideals, which measure the real maturing processes of education, cannot emerge for pupils out of learning situations unless teachers have certain basic positive attitudes to begin with. This in turn brings us back to a reconsideration of the measurement of the personality of the teacher.

Before discussing methods of refining teaching evaluation, it should be noted that statistical techniques have furnished us with new and powerful tools, among them factor analysis. For example, a factor analysis done by Hellfritsch[8] isolated five factors from a battery of twenty tests and ratings given teachers in one-room schools. He named the factors 1) general knowledge and mental ability, 2) a teacher rating scale factor—whether the rater likes the teacher, 3) a personal-emotional adjustment factor, 4) an eulogizing attitude towards the teaching profession factor, and 5) a teaching ability factor—the only one significantly connected with pupil gain.

This is not the place, however, to develop a summary of the literature on this subject, since an excellent review may be found elsewhere.[9] Instead, some more recent research will be noted. First on this list is another study using factor analysis in the determination of the relationship between teaching personality and other mental measures.[3] Obviously, if a number of personality tests are given to teaching candidates, and a factor analysis done on the resultant intercorrelations, one factor which may well emerge is the construct of ideal teaching personality. The loading on this factor of various tests scales seems to indicate such a person might be described by the following adjectives: socially responsible, tolerant, intellectually efficient, emotionally stable, objective, friendly, intelligent, having ego strength, good impression of self, status, good personal relations and social leadership.

This constellation was shown to be made up of three clusters. The first presented a person who is conscientious, conforming, who performs well

in interpersonal relations, has ego strength and a strong sense of personal worth, is emotionally stable and thinks well of others. The next cluster includes status, intelligence, and intellectual efficiency, and presents primarily a pattern of cultured literary intelligence and the work habits and behavior which go with it. The third cluster, including dominance, social participation and ascendance, clearly delineates social leadership.

Another investigation using the resources of the Teacher Characteristics Study summarized personality test results and autobiographical material on a sample of the top two per cent of all women elementary teachers observed in the Los Angeles area.[2] Tests showed these teachers to be more restrained, emotionally stable, objective, friendly, and stronger in good personal relations than the norm. They were also more tolerant, higher in academic achievement, less impulsive, more controlled, and more inclined to have good impressions of themselves.

In addition, the autobiographical material obtained in interviews with members of the group warranted the following summary:

> An outstanding teacher is the social legacy of a good home. There are in her background certain determinants of behavior, such as responsibility, conformity, lack of blame projection, and cooperativeness in helping others which seem to stem from strong parental models and identification with at least one of them. In the social groups of their childhood, these teachers felt a strong sense of belonging, and the necessity of conforming to a standard of conduct which was ordered and genteel, but neither capriciously administered nor impossible to attain. There was early development of participative responsibilities in the family group and then outward into other social groups. In this development the school and the church seemed to become extensions of the family in the similarity of perceived and approved values. Thirty per cent of the teachers' parents had themselves been teachers. The group had shown early interest in teaching experience. They were literary, enjoying reading and creative writing, and were generally more scholarly than their peers. They were more dedicated, concerned, and usually more controlled in behavior. They had been shyer as adolescents, and were intrapunitive rather than extrapunitive. They had excellent personal relations with others with virtually no blame-projection. They had low clerical and computational interests. They evinced a genuine love for children, and for the interaction which results in the growth of children socially and emotionally. They had strong work libidos, and lacked orientation towards either money or power. They appeared in short to be democratically oriented in the best sense of the term, and to enjoy the actual processes of interaction with children which they conceived to be the real function of teaching.[2]

Another study has pointed up the increasing body of research relating to the significance of the "K" scale of the MMPI in teaching prognosis. It has been shown to be correlated with positive personality adjustment in general and with teaching prognosis in particular. People with a moderate elevation on this scale appear to be responsible, secure, characterized by a well-functioning ego, friendly, and non-extrapunitive, in

short, to make good teachers and counselors.[6]

Out of another similar study has come a teaching prognosis scale for the MMPI.[4] It correlated .5 or better with the "K" scale of the MMPI, the good impression, tolerance, and intellectual efficiency scale of the California Psychological Inventory, and the emotional stability scale of the Guilford-Zimmerman Temperament Survey.

A most recent study has indicated that the adjective check list is a useful device for assessing teaching potential.[7] Interestingly enough, adjective clusters by peer and self-ratings appear very similar to previous research descriptions of the ideal teacher. For example, the highly chosen teaching personality was described as having 1) prepossessing appearance, 2) personal energy and drive, 3) intellectual ability, 4) a cheerful and confident emotional pattern, 5) organized, reliable, initiating work habits, and 6) a pattern of social adaptation which allows the individual to be a) cooperative, b) affectionate, and c) socially aggressive in a positive manner. In the first five categories the underchosen teaching personality exhibits lack of the qualities noted, or presence of their opposites. In the case of the last category the underchosen received adjectives which were arranged in a triune split according to whether predominantly dependent, hostile or withdrawn behavior is displayed.

Thus research on teacher personality is gradually making it possible for us to do something about teacher selection. The results of such research are useful at the recruitment level of senior high school, the training level of college, and the selection level of student teaching experiences. They can help us to eliminate those few with severe personality disturbances, and, equally important, to offer early counseling and other remedial work to those who only need assistance in emotional adjustment.

The materials and research are now available to undertake such a task, and it should not be long before they are more widely utilized. In the staggering job of keeping abreast of quantity requirements for trained personnel in our schools for the next decade, we have the equally important problem of preserving quality. If a combination of research and training can meet this problem, we jointly will have provided one of the conspicuous examples of professional service to the cause of American education in our century.

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Nine Steps to a Good Forensic Program

Grace Walsh

In attempting to discuss what it takes to build a good forensic program, one realizes that it may be difficult to avoid duplication of ideas if he deals with this problem in the scholarly way in which it is frequently approached. Let us look at the more practical aspects of nine steps which help to build a good program.

First let us define terms: We may interpret the word "good" to mean a remedial program for the handicapped, an activity program for the average, and a challenging outlet for the superior.

The first factor to be emphasized is that one at the heart of the whole forensic program—the school administrator who will decide which way your forensic program will go. Here is the man who decides the hours you will teach, the finances you may have and the amount of time you may be away from your regular duties to promote the extracurricular aspects of forensics.

School administrators need to be classified and analyzed by anyone who would develop a good forensic program. We suggest that you interview any administrator at the time he is considering appointing you and that you determine definitely his attitudes; they are vital in the success or failure of your program. It is especially to be noted that no forensic director should ever accept a position where his reputation is determined by what interscholastic wins or losses may accrue in any one season.

Now let's assume that you are placed in a desirable climate for speech as far as the administrative attitude is concerned, but that the activity is inadequately financed. It is essential to have adequate financing to build a good forensic program. The pocket book nerve is one of the most sensitive, and we admonish you to remember that. In spite of crowded conditions, all schools are eager to get good students, and we may assume that good forensic students are usually among the best students. Remember that college presidents are sensitive to enrollment figures. When they find out that your forensic program is a factor in attracting students to your college, you will find that allocations will also be increased. And with this situation met, let us move into our second point.

Let us consider this program now from the standpoint of the students. Obviously, with all the administrative support in the world and the financial wherewithal, there is no program without students. What can one do to attract interested students to the program? Judging contests is one way to recruit students. By this we do not mean the "Why don't you come to our college?" approach directly, but rather that college public service to high school areas is one of the ways to introduce at least one member of the faculty to prospective students. Next, we suggest specific enclosure of activity advertising in registration materials. Mimeograph

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a little brochure about your program, pointing out that people are welcome whether they have had experience or not, if you believe, as we do, that all students should have a chance in forensics.

We would suggest a chapter of a national honorary speech fraternity be instituted on the college campus or a chapter of the National Forensic League in the high school. We know that there are many who feel they do not need this motivation for their program. N. F. L. meant much to us in high school and our speech fraternity affiliation means something important to the people in our college.

We also recommend, wherever possible, be it a corner of the furnace room or a deserted storage room or what have you, that some specific place be designated as a room of the students' own where they may keep their files, post the notes from the alumni, and put up the schedules of practice sessions for each week.

It does seem to us that making the individuals in the group important enough to be honored by a place of their own helps to make a homogeneous group.

In our opinion students should never be dropped from the squad except for such necessary curtailment as specific tournament rules require. Travel as many students as possible.

We also recommend putting students in posts of authority within the squad and giving them trust and responsibility. Appointed student managers, whose successors are carefully chosen with the advice of the present managerial staff, are annually responsible for directing the following events on our campus: a high school clinic which this year attracted 300 high school students to our campus, a high school debate tournament which was attended by 400 high school debaters, and a college tourney in which 117 teams participated. These projects requiring large office staffs provide real executive leadership opportunities for members of our forensic group.

With the cooperation of the student elected officers of our speech fraternity, we have just this year initiated a very worth-while project on our campus. We planned what was called a forensic series to which all students were admitted free on their college activity tickets and to which others were allowed to purchase season membership. The program was patterned after the civic music series. It consisted of four numbers: The International Debate against the Combined British Universities team, a public open forum debate with Harvard, a cross-examination debate with Princeton, and a spring speech recital with varied forensic numbers.

In summary then of our second point, we would suggest that those who have not used the specific techniques which we have found helpful might see how variations of these suggestions might be applied to their own local situations.

Lastly, we would like to consider the role of the director of forensics, and what that person might do to establish forensics as an important activity in the educational program. Here are my recommendations: first, he should urge that specific time for forensics training be allocated in the school curriculum with some credit given for the activity. This assures a minimum number of contact hours between the speech director and the

speakers and, while it does not rule out the possibility of working with students who have impossible schedule conflicts, it is extremely beneficial in constantly scheduling group sessions or individual practices.

A second suggestion is that every speech director should consider himself a public liaison agent between the community and the school. We have found the establishment of a speakers' bureau to be a good project in our organization. We supply annually approximately fifty free programs for civic, social, and religious organizations. At particular seasons like Christmas, we have several speakers on call. We appear at luncheon meetings of important business organizations in our community. To discover what topics of interest the faculty members are willing to talk about, we conduct a faculty poll. We act as a free coordinating agency for a wide variety of calls. This is mutually beneficial. It gives audiences to our more able students (we follow the policy of inflicting our less experienced on timekeepers and judges) while our college speakers receive the benefit of ready-made audiences.

My last suggestion is that all of us climb out of our ivory towers long enough to encourage our speech students to be active leaders in student governing affairs so that they may have a voice in any policy determining the future of forensic affairs. And let us remember that if we keep our school administrators and our student bodies informed of what we are doing, why we are doing it, and give them proof that a speech program is worth-while, we shall save ourselves the future embarrassment of the Fisher Report we brought upon ourselves.

In conclusion, let me restate my points:

1. Get the administrator in your corner.
2. Interest the students.
3. Institute a chapter of a national honorary society.
4. Have your own room.
5. Develop leaders within the group.
6. Have interesting public programs.
7. Put forensics on a "credit" basis.
8. Establish a speaker's bureau.
9. Keep the campus and public informed.

Let your speech be always with grace, seasoned with salt.

The Epistle of Paul to the Colossians
The Bible

Speech is the small change of silence.

The Ordeal of Richard Feverel
Owen Meredith

Your Verbal Slip Is Showing

C. Merton Babcock

Mark Twain once wrote, "Religion consists of a set of things which the average man thinks he believes and wishes he was certain." And I maintain that much the same thing holds for English usage. Grammar is a set of language rules to which the average person pays a certain lip service but understands very little about. And this rather shallow grasp of the subtle mysteries of word choice and verbal arrangement is by no means confined to the hoi polloi. Even the linguistic clergy—the Archbishops of Correctness—are not impervious to the encroachments of Mrs. Malaprop, the spelling demons, and the seven deadly sins of syntax. The most ardent defenders of the King's English owe their elementary acquaintance with grammar, as the neo-humanists would say, to the grace of God. They are just as guilty of unpremeditated linguicide as those they say a prayer for. A university professor in Illinois suggests that teachers who are inclined to criticize students' usage should cast only small pebbles. And this seems an excellent suggestion, for, in the final analysis, who among us is without error?

In the folklore of linguistica is the story of one "evangélist" who, with respect to ending a sentence with a preposition, pronounced his own doom when he said, "You are addicted to a literary crime that none but a depraved writer would be guilty of. Now take me, I only made one mistake in grammar in my life, and as soon as I done it I seen it."

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Most linguistic boo-boos attract little attention, but one that has recently made the Big Time is the use of *like* as a conjunction (in place of *as*). When the Public Relations boys created the "illiterate" slogan, "Winstons taste good like a cigarette should!" the high priests and priestesses of the Most High and Exalted Grammar started screaming to high heaven. The editors of *The New Yorker* said, "Our prediction is that along Madison Avenue bad grammar, as an attention-getter will soon be as popular as mutilation." Laura Z. Hobson of *The Saturday Review* blurted out, "Me, I like syntax and grammar and I hate to see them go up in smoke."

Well, Rip Van Winkle, I've got news for you: the one-horse shay has long since collapsed, the Civil War is over, Kittridge and Farley are out of print, and some brand new signposts dot the American linguistic terrain. Back in 1931, Janet Rankin Aiken justified the popular use of *like* on a sound linguistic basis, showing that as a conjunction it makes just as much sense as the word *opposite* does as a preposition. Twenty-five years later, Bruce Bliven, Jr., in menticidal glee, decided to condone the "misogrammarianism" in his revised rules for copy editing. (See *The Saturday Evening Post*, September 22, 1956.) Furthermore, *The Oxford English Dictionary* supports this "Non-U-sage" with quotations from Shakespeare, Robert Southey, and William Morris. And the publishing house Simon and Schuster sanctifies it for the Ding Dong School set (through the good offices of Creeper the Mouse) in K. an B. Jack-

son's *Farm Stories* (1946): "There's nothing more useful than finding cheese. I was pretty good at it, once. But lately, I don't find the old cheese like I did."

Now certain traditionalists would have us believe that "the chief agent of change is ignorance." So Ben Ray Redman editorializing in *The Saturday Review*, March 2, 1957. This premise, if admitted, proves us a nation of morons and makes the linguistic liberals guilty of the unforgivable sin. Professor Ellsworth Barnard of Bowdoin College who openly advised teachers to quit boring their students with the ancient and obsolete rules of grammar (*New York Times*, December 14, 1956, p. 31) is still hiding out from the witch-hunters. Of course, the real practitioners of language need no such advice. Every issue of the most respectable magazines is replete with syntactical bloopers of one kind or another.

For example, Wolfgang Langewiesche, writing in *Harper's* (November, 1956), shifts gears from first to second person in a manner which should make any dyed-in-the-wool purist cringe: ". . . but I kept looking, and the longer you look at it, the more you see." A while back, the same writer slipped a double negative past his publishers, which Donald Lloyd thinks may have cost him a fifth of scotch: "Well, it isn't crowned by no castle, that's for sure, and by no cathedral either."

Laura Z. Hobson showed her lack of lexiconfidence (*The Saturday Review*, September 15, 1956) by making *halfwit* double for *halfwitted* contrary to the best advice of *Webster's New World Dictionary*.

Bennett Cerf, author-publisher-lecturer-panelist, is apparently not tied to the apron strings of his mother tongue. In *The Saturday Review* (June 16, 1956), he used *neither . . . or* as a compound conjunction — a misusage allowed by neither H. W. Fowler nor by Margaret Nicholson who recently brought MEU up-to-date. Again, on March 23, 1957, Mr. Cerf used the reflexive pronoun as the subject of a verb (also tabooed by Fowler-Nicholson). And once more, he employed the word *conclude* in the sense of *infer*—a malpractice which Mr. Redman emphatically deplores in an editorial on usage published in the same periodical.

Even worse, by recognized standards of linguistic decency, is the dangling participle which Loren C. Eiseley slipped past the guarded portals of *Harper's Magazine* (January, 1956): "Finally glancing by my boot an indistinct configuration caught my eye." Or this one from *The Atlantic* (February, 1957, p. 60): "Looking back over this compressed and scrambled segment of history, many important competitions are but the haziest of memories."

But the payoff, from a report by Harold Allen in *Word Study* (May, 1957) is the misspelling of *ecstasy* and *idiosyncrasy* by a number of Shining Lights in the literary world, including members of The Curriculum Commission of the National Council of Teachers of English, who persistently ignore the etymological sense of these words.

Mark Twain says, "It depends upon who writes a thing whether it is coarse or not." And this, as nearly as I can figure out, is the essence of language logic. It isn't so much whether you swear or not, as who you are and who(m) you are addressing. Emerson referred to city girls as *dolls* long before the expression was boycotted by schoolma'ams.

The idea I am grappling with is that in the very act of expressing dis-

approval of others the Stone Throwers trip and fall over their own brickbats. For example, Margaret Nicholson, in her *Dictionary of American-English Usage* (1957), insists that one should say *sick at the stomach,* not *sick to the stomach.* But in making the distinction she calls this phrase "the expression *of* nausea," rather than the more defensible "expression *for* nausea." "The expression of nausea," of course, is *dysautonomia* (or vomiting). Incidentally, Hans Kurath, in *A Word Geography of the Eastern United States,* lists four equally acceptable variants of the expression: *sick at the stomach, sick to the stomach, sick on the stomach,* and *sick in the stomach.* Which form is "correct" depends on where you live as well as on who you are.

Speaking of idioms, notice Miss Nicholson's definition: "Any form of expression that, as compared with other forms in which the principles of abstract grammar, if there is such a thing, would have allowed the idea in question to be clothed, has established itself as the particular way preferred by those whose mother tongue is English & therefore presumably characteristic of them." I admit this definition is grammatically "correct." But as clear, lucid, intelligible English, it is a good example of what the author calls *gibberish*: "Anything too learnedly worded, or too rudely expressed for one to make out its meaning."

Mr. Bliven makes better sense when he spikes his sentences with grammatical errors: "Another few years and even the purists will happily use the expressions I find so painful today. When that day comes, just *contact* me, *like* I'm asking you now to do. I'll then look in my *most* unique files for the *data* which is there confirming my prophecy. That is, of course, *providing* I am not *literally* frozen with horror at the way things are going." (Italics mine)

As I was saying: A jigger of bonded good sense is worth a full case of correctness.

An Old Warning for a New Century --

When the time comes for you to speak and the hearers have proposed themes and starting-points for discussion, find fault with all the difficult ones; disparage them as offering no challenge, any of them, to a he-man. Do not hesitate, but say whatever comes into your head. Have no care that the first thing shall be said first because it actually is first, or that your second and third shall be in the proper order. Just say what comes first to you. But press on, keep going, and only do not stop. For all occasions have Marathon in readiness; you cannot do without it. And always have a fleet crossing Mount Athos in ships, and an army the Hellespont on foot, the sun eclipsed by the arrows of the Medes, Xerxes in flight, and Leonidas receiving acclaim. And in everything let those few words of your selection, your seasoning-condiment, abound and flourish—apply sundry and doubtless constantly, even if you do not need them; they are lovely words, even when used haphazardly. Exclaim "Ah, woe unto me" often, smite your thigh, bellow, punctuate what you say with clearings of the throat, and sway your hips as you pace about.

The Professor of Public Speaking
Lucian

University and College On-Campus Adult Speech Programs in the Central States Area

George L. Hinds

Recent public attention devoted to Russian scientific achievements has dramatized the need for quality education in our institutions of higher learning. We are told on the one hand that we must improve the qualitative aspects of education. On the other hand we learn that universities and colleges face a rising enrollment trend because of a population bulge. We are thus expected to direct our educational efforts toward quality and toward quantity at the same time.

At such a time it is advisable that we remind ourselves of another aspect in this educational picture—the education of adults. In this central states region adult speech courses are now a normal part of our higher educational efforts, and such programs constitute an area of interest and concern for speech teachers in colleges and universities throughout this region.

The word "adult" may be misleading. The term may refer to evening students who take credit courses. In the midwest these evening adult students sometimes are working on degrees and sometimes are not. Some are merely taking an occasional speech course to round out a professional or business background. The term "adult" also refers to those people who take non-credit courses offered by extension centers or by other agencies of our universities or colleges.

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In a fundamental sense we are all engaged in the education of adults in one way or another, but in our region a great deal of speech work is aimed at adults as differentiated from recent high school graduates. All over the midwest adults are attending our universities and colleges at hours convenient to them, and our speech offerings are based on this fact. For example, Dean McBurney reported to me that Northwestern University continues to offer a rather full program of Evening Division courses. Some fifty sections of credit-bearing courses are offered in Chicago, and a half dozen in Evanston. Dr. Howell at the University of Minnesota also described several credit courses offered in the Extension Division. Leroy Laase at the University of Nebraska noted a similar credit course development for adults. In fact nearly every State University reported evening credit course development, and most private colleges in this region seem to be engaged in a like educational effort. Indeed, the evening college and the extension curriculum are now a part of higher education efforts throughout the midwest.

At the recent Central States Convention I cited examples of this adult credit course development based upon a sample of thirty-five leading institutions in this area. In this article there is no point to my enumerating individual college developments, but we must recognize that such courses are centered primarily in public

speaking, discussion, and radio and TV with a lesser number of courses in voice and diction, theatre, and correction.

Non-credit speech programs also are plentiful in the central states area. Such programs range all the way from the pioneering General Motors Institute courses to an occasional offering of a single course upon demand. At the University of Wisconsin, for example, there are six organizations in the University which offer speech training. At Wayne State University, at Michigan State University, and at the University of Michigan a similar situation prevails. Non-credit speech courses are a part of Institutes of Industrial Relations, School of Business agencies, Engineering Institutes, and Extension services.

It is significant that two distinctly separate types of non-credit offerings can be noted. On the one hand speech courses are given to the public at large. On the other hand, special interest groups receive in-service types of speech programs given by faculty in our institutions. For example, Loren Reid remarks that a variety of short courses are offered for bankers, county agents, librarians, peace officers, and the like at the University of Missouri. Similar reports specifying a wide variety of groups came to me from many other colleges in the area. Colleges and universities in this region are engaged in many non-credit programs for the public and for specialized groups. Adults will continue to demand our instruction also, and they will get it either by means of expanded evening course schedules, by expansion of evening junior colleges, or by an expansion of non-credit courses.

The stimulus for increased adult demand comes not only from individual desire for formal education but also from the growth of management development efforts in our major corporations. Henry Ford Community College in Dearborn, for example, fills its classrooms and many of the facilities of a corporation for credit courses involving Ford Motor Company employees and managers from other organizations. These courses are credit offerings, but similar courses are offered as non-credit classes in other colleges in this region.

I doubt that we are fully prepared for the coming educational demands that will be made upon us. Without repeating too many times, I hope, Karl Robinson's timely warning about our facing a teacher shortage, I submit to you that we face a coming crisis with respect to adult demands also. Special interest groups demand from us that we find a way to release our top talent for their speech training efforts. Our youth demand quality also. Our times call for quantity not merely for the education of youth but also for the continued education of the mature. Our task is to meet these needs with vision, with personnel, and with ideas equal to the challenge.

Russia's scientific achievements have reminded us that we must solve our educational problems. Yet, as we and our fellow citizens try to advance with respect to science, let us not forget that we must advance with training in our social skills. By crash program or by normal growth we must find a way to give to youth and to adults the education required in a democratic society. The answers to our challenges lie with you!

Speech Improvement and the High School Speech Class

Frances Lea McCurdy

What is *speech improvement?* It may encompass the total education of a student—development of personality, acquisition of knowledge, discovery and arrangement of ideas, composition, and delivery. These are worthy goals, but so general as to be vague. In the speech class, improvement ordinarily refers to better voice and platform behavior. The therapist serves those who have speech problems; improvement is concerned with students whose speech already falls within normal boundaries.

If we agree that the speech class should bring about improvement, we may well ask *what* speech class? Is it Mr. Adams' speech class at Central High School in Kansas City or Miss Brent's speech class at Consolidated R-2? Mr. Adams, who has a master's degree in speech, teaches speech classes exclusively and has school time to work with students who need special attention; Miss Brent is an English teacher who inherited the speech class when the superintendent learned that she had some credit in oral interpretation. In addition to her speech class, she teaches four classes of English, catalogues library books, polices the study hall, and directs all the plays. As a means of finding out what both Mr. Adams and Miss Brent were doing about speech improvement, a questionnaire was mailed to 130 selected high school teachers in Missouri. Thirty-five questionnaires were sent to full-time teachers of speech in large schools; forty-five were mailed to teachers in large and medium-sized schools who taught speech and some other subject; sixty-five were distributed among teachers in small high schools who taught a combination that included speech. Questions were asked about the teacher's training, his attitudes, the content of the speech course, the methods of teaching, and his accomplishments with specific students. About sixty per cent of the teachers answered the questions.

A relatively small number of high school teachers are full-time teachers of speech. Approximately three-fourths of the speech teachers in Missouri teach more classes in English than in speech. Others teach algebra and speech, geography and speech, Spanish and speech, music and speech, or combine the teaching of speech with counselling or administration.

Too many states have inadequate requirements for certification of teachers of speech. In Missouri a bachelor's degree in education, a valid secondary certificate, and ten college hours in any area of speech qualify a candidate. His personal speech skills are disregarded by the qualifying agent.

Teachers of speech have generally been trained in drama, debate, public address, and interpretation. Few have had any training in speech correction.

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If the responses to the questionnaire are typical, one in four teachers has had a course in phonetics, one in five has had "a little" correction, one in fifty has had work in audiology, and only one in a hundred has had any experience in clinical practice.

In answer to the question about the content of the speech course, Mr. Adams and Miss Brent said that they stressed public speaking, discussion, interpretation, and dramatics. Almost all the teachers indicated that they attempted to improve the speech of students in their classes, but they worked for improvement in various ways.

Improvement sometimes results from imitation of a good model. Students imitate the people they admire and if a popular Miss Brent or Mr. Adams furnishes a pattern of good speech, students tend to copy it. Unfortunately, students also follow poor models. An attractive Miss Brent who distorts her *s* may be responsible for wholesale *s* distortion in the school where she teaches. One Mr. Adams with undesirable regional speech, but with charm, can bring about more unfortunate speech habits than a semester of drill can eliminate. Adequate speech skill on the part of the teacher should be a requirement for certification.

Before the teacher can improve the vocal and platform skills of the Susies and Hermans in his classes, he must bring about awareness of need and desire for improvement. Recordings have aided him in accomplishing these steps. When Herman hears his own voice on tape or record for the first time, his reaction frequently is, "I don't sound like that. There must be something wrong with the machine." The other students' assurance that the record is a true representation usually convinces him of its relative accuracy and he has the unaccustomed experience of listening to his own voice objectively. He finds it difficult to believe that the high thin voice on record is his own, but convinced that it is, he is ready to work for improvement.

Some teachers have shown much ingenuity in arousing interest in better speech. One teacher demonstrated the social and economic advantages with the records of *My Fair Lady*. She let Colonel Pickering, Henry Higgins, and Eliza Doolittle plead the case for good speech and demonstrated the effectiveness of practice with Eliza's song of the rain in Spain.

Columbia and Classical records provide many models of good speech with high interest value. Laurence Oliver, Judith Anderson, Dylan Thomas, Norman Corwin, Agnes Moorhead, and Charles Laughton—to name a few—will give pleasure and provide examples for Susie and Herman to follow. Some teachers prefer to make records or tapes of good student performances rather than to use commercial models. Whatever records are used, the teacher should prepare the student to listen by pointing out the factor to which the listener is to attain. He may ask the student to listen to Norman Corwin's use of emphasis and pause, to Charles Laughton's response to his material, to the musical voice of Dylan Thomas, or to the excellent introductions which Lew Sarett makes to the reading of his own poems.

Drills have a place in the program of improvement. The teacher who can make the drill seem like play

usually accomplishes more than the one who follows a dull routine. Pronunciation drills can be conducted like TV quiz shows and choral reading of lively material can be fun. One teacher emphasizes drills on sounds commonly confused in the region where she teaches. In Missouri "wish" often rhymes with "bush" and "just" with "list." "Fire" becomes "fahr" and "min" is substituted for "men." We Missourians know that we are at home when the waitress offers us "limon" pie. After the student becomes aware of his error, drills help him to make the correct sound habitual.

Teachers often work for improvement through other speech activities. When they teach public speaking, they require speakers to maintain alert but relaxed posture, to speak with animation, to use acceptable vocal behavior, and to look at the audience as well as to collect and organize materials. When they teach dramatics, they stress projection, articulation, and voice quality. They know that the same factors that make Susie and Herman better actors on stage make them better speakers off stage. When students read aloud in English and speech classes, teachers interested in improvement insist upon responsiveness to material and upon good phrasing, stress, and rhythm.

Sometimes poor speech seems to be connected with a student's lack of status with his peer group and successful participation in forensics, dramatics, or public speaking brings improvement in speech. One teacher told of a boy who stopped stuttering after he received praise for good reading in English class; another told of a girl whose high strained voice became pleasant in quality after she had won recognition in a public speaking contest.

Where the high school has no therapist, the speech teacher generally has the responsibility of advising students with speech problems. A teacher without training in correction should certainly not attempt to diagnose and correct speech disorders, but he should try to arrange for students who need help to see an expert. Directors of speech clinics in colleges and universities, crippled children's services, and hospitals often offer diagnostic aid. We can hope that in the future every school will have its own therapist, but the report of the subcommittee on Paramedical Personnel in Rehabilitation and Care of the Chronically Ill which indicated a present shortage of some 12,000 therapists makes the possibility seem remote. The only recourse left for the untrained teacher is to find out what facilities for speech diagnosis and training exist in his area.

An objective evaluation of the effectiveness of a high school speech class in improving the speech of students is difficult. A cause and effect relationship probably cannot be shown, but the record of 3,687 freshmen whose speech skills were surveyed at the University of Missouri in 1956 and 1957 offers some interesting information. In this survey two members of the speech faculty listened to each student speak before a group of his peers. They rated him on voice quality, articulation, use of language, and platform behavior. They sent students whom they believed might need special help to confer with two other faculty members more thoroughly trained in correction. The final testers listened to

the student's speech, talked with him about his problems, and either excused him or assigned him to remedial work. Of the 2,102 freshmen who had no speech training in high school, 18.4 per cent or almost one in five were classified as remedial. Of the 1,585 who had taken a high school course in speech, only 11.5 per cent or a little more than one in ten showed problems serious enough to be classified as remedial. Though these figures tell us nothing about the degree of improvement, they do show that when these students faced a particular speech situation, those who had taken a high school course in speech proved adequate in a ratio of nearly two to one.

The high school teacher deserves praise for what he has accomplished, but he would deserve more by demanding high standards for teachers of speech. Before a teacher can improve speech, he must recognize good speech and know techniques of improvement. It follows that the requirements for certification should insure sufficient training. The high school teacher of speech should have—as a minimum—training in voice and diction, speech correction, phonetics, public speaking, oral interpretation, and dramatics. In addition, he should be required to demonstrate good personal speech by passing a test in reading and speaking before he is certified to teach. The adoption of these requirements would go a long way towards insuring better quality of speech instruction in the high school and increasing the public respect for teachers of speech. The responsibility for urging state departments of education to adopt these requirements lies with speech teachers since they may be presumed to have the greatest interest in raising the standards of their profession and increasing the benefits of their teaching.

Meanwhile the effectiveness of speech improvement in the high school speech class rests upon the teacher's own concern for thorough training and good speech habits, upon his ingenuity and enthusiasm for his work, and his interest in his students.

My good man, surely not Apollo sent you to me? Ah, you will find that my voice overcomes all others, as the trumpet the flute, as the cicada the bee, as the choir the master who gives the key-note of the tune. You could not learn to be a speaker with so much ease from anyone but me. Have no scruples and be not disturbed that you have not passed through all the weary rites of initiation which the ordinary system of preparatory teaching sets in the path of silly fools. Sail right in, even if—a by no means uncommon thing—you do not know how to write. Speaking is something else again! I will first list all the equipment for your journey, then add some advice, and before sunset, I shall make you known as a better speaker than all the others, as good indeed as myself, without doubt the first, middle-most, and last of all the speaker-profession.

The Professor of Public Speaking
Lucian

The Graduate Assistant Looks at Himself

Ronald R. Allen

At the close of the present term, I shall have completed three semesters of teaching speech fundamentals as a graduate assistant at the University of Wisconsin. Since this constitutes the total of my teaching experience, the opinions that I express are those of a beginner, an apprentice teacher of the speech fundamentals course.

The first question that would appear to merit discussion is, "What should be the role of the graduate assistant in the fundamentals course?" This question might also be stated, "What should be the policy of the university with respect to the graduate assistant assigned to teach the speech fundamentals course?" Stated quite simply, this question is a consideration of just how much autonomy the graduate assistant should have in organizing and teaching a course of this nature.

As a graduate assistant, I am not an exponent of complete graduate assistant autonomy in teaching the fundamentals course. As a matter of fact, I think such autonomy might be a very grave mistake. I think it imperative that we assistants understand that it is the speech department's responsibility to provide the best possible instruction for the student in the speech fundamentals course. It is also true that the department must assume the responsibility of developing good teachers by providing good teaching-learning situations for graduate students.

Since the speech department has this dual responsibility, it is not possible to justify the use of graduate assistants unless the department is convinced that graduate students do a competent job in the classroom. Now, I don't feel that this dual responsibility poses a dilemma which the departmental chairman will be unable to resolve. I think it is possible to provide good teacher-learning experiences for graduate students and still be assured that the students in the fundamentals courses are receiving good speech instruction.

As an example of a program which impresses me as being effective in meeting this dual responsibility, I can point to one of the courses that I have taught for three semesters at the University of Wisconsin. Prior to the beginning of the school year, the assistants selected to teach this course met with the professor in charge and received administrative information, a copy of the text, and suggested syllabus which prior teachers of the course had found to be a useful one. I was happy to receive this suggested syllabus because it helped to clarify what the university wanted this course to accomplish. I was pleased also that the faculty member in charge of this course held bi-weekly luncheon meetings in which we could frankly ask questions, seek counsel and make recommendations. I feel that the syllabus and bi-weekly meetings enhanced my ability to do a proficient job of teaching in the classroom. Complete autonomy at this point would not have contributed to the excellence of the course. I needed help and I was very happy to receive it.

Mr. Allen (M.S., Wisconsin, 1957) is a Teaching Assistant, Department of Speech, University of Wisconsin.

I noted also during that first semester that the faculty member in charge accepted our suggestions for course improvement and used them in preparing the syllabus for the next semester. This gave me a feeling of participation in framing the content of the course.

Prior to the conclusion of the semester, one of our luncheon meetings was devoted to a discussion of the type of exam that should be employed in the course. Since many of us were rather new at the game of making up exams, we decided to work on the final exam as a group enterprise. The end product, I am sure, was much superior because of our collective effort and the experience was a valuable learning one from my point of view. Meetings of this type, the suggested syllabus, and helpful departmental guidance enabled me to do what I consider a competent job during my first year of teaching at the University of Wisconsin. This year I am much more confident in the teaching situation and vary the syllabus more frequently, with departmental approval, to adapt to student abilities, class enrollments, and things of that nature. This, I think, is a valuable type of organization. This program succeeds with respect to providing a valuable teaching-learning situation for the graduate assistant. I learned much. And I am convinced, at the risk of sacrificing my humility, that the department could feel assured that the students in the course were receiving good speech instruction. Although the graduate assistant in this program is not frequently observed, he is carefully selected, he is given a suggested syllabus, and most important of all—he is given good and frequent counsel from more experienced teachers.

I have also taught in a situation where I served as a lab assistant in a fundamentals course. The students attended one weekly lecture period and spent two hours a week under my guidance. During these two hours I heard speeches and gave critiques both oral and written. I did not help to design the syllabus and I did not have the opportunity to lecture. This, I think, is not a valuable situation. In the first situation discussed above, I learned much; in the latter situation, I learned little. Of course, I realize that employing lab assistance is economically feasible, but I think that the graduate assistant does not gain as much from a course of this nature.

Another program which does not meet this dual responsibility is that one which gives the graduate assistant full authority in text selection, course content, etc. In this type of program the graduate assistant may benefit by his mistakes, but I doubt if his students will.

If, then, I were asked to set forth characteristics of a good graduate assistant program, I would say that a good program is that which:

1. Provides guidance for the graduate assistant through a suggested syllabus, frequent meetings, and helpful counseling.
2. Permits the graduate student to participate in formulating a syllabus, selecting a text, and making recommendations for course improvement.
3. Acknowledges prior graduate teaching experience and permits individual adaptation to the particular teaching situation.

Negatively stated, that program fails which:

1. Offers no suggested syllabus or an overly stringent syllabus, limited counseling, and little or no follow-through after the syllabus is handed out early in the year.
2. Offers no possibility for graduate participation in organizing course content.
3. Offers no chance for individual adaptation to particular teaching situations.

Now that I have expressed my opinions concerning the role of the graduate assistant in the speech fundamentals course, I would like to explore some of the problems which have presented themselves during the three semesters in which I have served as an assistant. These problems are not meant to be exhaustive, but rather representative of those for which the teaching assistant seeks an answer. These problems are not the exclusive property of the beginning teacher. I imagine that most teachers have met them. The difference, I suspect, is that the experienced teacher has found answers for which we fledglings are still searching.

It is not my purpose to propose these problems in order that I may have the opportunity to provide answers. Rather, I hope that by suggesting some of the questions for which I am still seeking answers, you will see just how extensive is our need for counsel.

One of the first problems that confronts the beginning teacher of speech is, "How should one evaluate a speech?" I never seem to have enough time to give as extensive a critique as I wish. I employ both written and oral critiques which make it possible to give a rather general oral criticism either after each speech or after all the speeches for that particular day have been given. But at times, I think that my mouthings concerning rate, pitch, force, organization and a long list of etceteras leave much to be desired. A discussion of this topic might well include such additional questions as, "What techniques can a beginning teacher use to encourage self-analysis?" and "Should criticism include only the most important problems meriting improvement?"

Another problem is created by some foreign students with speech defects. Last semester a Chinese student was a member of my speech fundamentals section. He had previously spent much time in the speech clinic but still spoke in a manner which made him unintelligible to the rest of the class—and to myself. Early in the semester he handed in written project one which stated in part, "Everytime I talk to new-face people, I have trouble with tongue. I think it is due to my inferior complexity." Well, I talked to John about taking more clinical work and postponing the fundamentals course, but he preferred to stay in the course so he could talk to an audience. He tried hard, I tried hard, the class tried hard, but on the final project John Hong was still incomprehensible. I gave him a C for effort and he gave me a can of Oriental tea his father had sent from Hong Kong. With twenty-plus students in each section, one tape recorder that I share with many others, and with limited knowledge of how to deal with such problems, I find myself somewhat inadequate to cope with situations of this nature.

Another question which occurred to me early in my teaching experience

was how to adapt the course to students of varying speech abilities. At the University of Wisconsin the Speech One class includes students of vastly different speech backgrounds and interests. Some students take speech to fulfill a requirement while others take the course because they have achieved a degree of proficiency in high school courses and consider speech activities to be satisfying experiences. Still another group seeks to attain confidence in the Speech One course. Whatever the interests, backgrounds, or goals of the students, it is our responsibility to provide instruction which will help them improve their speech proficiency. An associated problem arises concerning grading. Should the student be graded on improvement or should all students be graded according to a standard criteria of proficiency?

These, then, are some of the questions that I am trying to effectively answer. At Wisconsin, a seminar for teaching assistants was started this semester under the guidance of Professor Gladys Borchers. We meet every Wednesday noon to combine food for sustenance with food for thought. This seminar has been valuable in affording the teaching assistant an opportunity to present some of these questions for consideration.

I have attempted to present briefly my opinions of the role of the graduate assistant in the fundamentals course. I have asked for authority to participate in formulating course content and in selecting a text. I have asked for reasonable autonomy that permits individual adaptation. I have asked for your counsel in answering the many questions which confront the graduate assistant. If I have complained too little, it is because I have been quite satisfied with the program at Wisconsin. If I have complained too much, it is because I'm just naturally hard to please.

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News and Notes from the State Associations

MICHIGAN

Contributing Editor: Geraldine Bertovick

MICHIGAN SPEECH ASSOCIATION ANNUAL SPRING MEETING

Friday, May 9, 1958
Frieze Building (Formerly the Ann Arbor High School Building)
Ann Arbor

President ..... Marvin Esch, Wayne State University
1st Vice-President ..... Harold Haskitt, General Motors Institute
2nd Vice-President ..... Geraldine Bertovick, Michigan State University
Secretary-Treasurer ..... Clarence Murphy, Bay City Handy High School
Forensic Council Members ..... Maurice Fall, Jackson High School
Emil Pfister, Central Michigan College
Forensic Association ..... Moyne Cubbage, University of Michigan
MEA Representative ..... Norm Hearn
General Speech Chairman ..... Gene Duckworth, Mt. Pleasant High School
Radio-TV Chairman ..... Jim-Bob Stephenson, University of Michigan
Drama Chairman ..... Helen Harton, Albion College
Interpretation Chairman ..... Barbara Burmeister, Hart High School

General Program

(All meetings except the luncheon will be held in the Frieze Bldg.)

9:00 a.m. to 9:45 a.m.—Registration, Coffee Hour, and Tour.

The Department of Speech of the University of Michigan has invited the Michigan Speech Association to be its guest at an Open House held on that day. During the registration period, MSA members will have an opportunity to see the new quarters and facilities which the Speech Department now enjoys in the Frieze Building. Professor Densmore has indicated that the regular speech classes will be dismissed for the day to enable MSA members to tour the building and to talk with members of the faculty in any of the speech areas.

9:45 a.m. to 11:15 a.m.—Sectional Meetings: General Speech, Theatre, Interpretation, Radio-TV

General Speech Area

Program Chairman—Mr. Gene Duckworth, Mt. Pleasant High School

High School

Topic: "Problems of High School Forensics"

Speaker: Mr. Moyne Cubbage, State Manager, Michigan High School Forensic Association

College

Topic: "A Study of Debate Practices" The results of a national and statewide survey will be reported.

Speaker: Dr. Gilbert Rau, Central Michigan College

Theatre Area

Program Chairman—Dr. Helen Harton, Albion College

In this meeting the high school and college teachers will meet together to hear a panel of distinguished theatre teachers in the state.

Topic: "Problems in Costuming"

Panel Speakers:

Representing the High Schools:

Miss Leitha V. Perkins, Director of Dramatics, Midland High School

Mr. Ernest J. Mauer, Chairman of the Art Department, Handy High School, Bay City

Representing the Colleges and Universities:

Dr. Zack York, Chairman, Department of Speech, Western Michigan University

Miss Agnes David, costumer, Michigan State University

Chairman: Dr. Helen Harton

The actual costumes used in productions at these schools will be modeled by high school and college students.

Also, Clarence Murphy will display an exhibit of photographs of some of his productions at Handy High School in Bay City.

Interpretation Area

Program Chairman—Mrs. Barbara J. Burmeister, Hart High School, Hart

Topic: "Constructive Criticism of Interpretation"

Speakers: Demonstrations by both high school and college teachers and readers.

General Meeting

2:15 p.m. to 3:30 p.m.—Communication Panel

Program Chairman—Mr. Gene Duckworth, Mt. Pleasant High School

Topic: "What Do We Mean by Communication?"

Panel Members:

Dr. Paul Deutschmann, Department of Speech, Michigan State University

Dr. David Berlo, Department of Speech, Michigan State University

Dr. Wilbur Moore, Chairman, Department of Speech, Central Michigan College

Mr. James F. Huffman, Speech Section, General Motors Institute

Dr. N. Edd Miller, Department of Speech, University of Michigan

Panel Moderator: Dr. Kenneth Hance, Department of Speech, Michigan State University

The color film, "Communication Primer" will be used to initiate the discussion in which questions such as the following will be considered:

1. What are the elements of the communication process?
2. What are some of its basic principles?
3. What are the implications for the field of speech?
   a. What, if any, changes do speech teachers have to make in the light of these implications?
   b. Does it mean more emphasis upon any course of the communication skills?

3:40 p.m.—Afternoon Coffee

The Status of Speech in Michigan High Schools

Some "vital statistics" gleaned from a recent survey of speech teachers in Michigan conducted by Fred Alexander and Gordon Thomas of M.S.U. may be of interest to members of the Central States Speech Association.

A total of 702 high schools were surveyed, replies being received from all but 37. Of the remaining 665 schools, 511 or 77 per cent reported having at least one teacher on the staff who devoted all or part of his time to the teaching of speech.

Questionnaires were returned from 393 or approximately 70 per cent of the 564 teachers of speech in the high schools of Michigan. Forty per cent of these hold an M.A. degree or its equivalent. Subjects in addition to speech taught by these teachers include English (85 per cent), history (11 per cent), and languages and journalism (6 per cent each).

The per cent of time devoted to the teaching of speech is as follows:

Per cent of Teaching Time Devoted to Speech	*Per cent of Teachers Teaching This Amount*
0–25	55.7
25–50	16.3
50–75	10.2
75–100	14.7
	3.0

In the area of extracurricular speech activities, 79 teachers were responsible for no activities, 173 for drama, 119 for debate and/or discussion, 157 for forensics, and 25 for assembly planning. Approximately 13 per cent of the teachers coach dramatics as their only extracurricular activity, 3 per cent coach only debate and/or discussion, and 7 per cent are responsible only for the forensic activities.

Eleven of the thirteen states in the Central States (along with four other states) will send representatives to the Interstate Oratorical Contest to be held at M.S.U.'s Kellogg Center on April 24 and 25. This is the second year that the contest has been held at M.S.U. Last year's winner in the women's division was Miss Diane Oaks of Wayne University.

From M.S.U. comes the further news that the National Congress of Delta Sigma Rho, forensic honorary, will be held there on April 10, 11, and 12, at which time the M.S.U. Chapter will be installed.

descriptions of

New Books

Speech Instructors should have a special interest in the offerings of Droke House, the largest publisher engaged exclusively in the production of speech material. In addition to QUOTE, The Weekly Digest, now in its eighteenth year, Droke House issues a number of practical reference works, known collectively as the *Public Talker's Bookshelf*. They also publish the *Speech-Sparker Library*, a collection of fifty portfolios on timely topics. Write them for detailed information. Address, Droke House, Publishers, Indianapolis 6, Indiana.

THE IMPROVEMENT OF VOICE AND DICTION, by Jon Eisenson: Professor of Speech and Director of the Speech and Hearing Clinic, Queens College, New York City. 303 pages, 5¾ × 8½, 27 illus., $4.75. The Macmillan Company.

This book, intended for people without chronic abnormalities of speech, presents a fresh approach to speech improvement. Speech production, the standards and levels of speech, the nature and functioning of the speech mechanism, and the speech sounds of American-English are covered. The book offers positive emphasis on the improvement of the speaking voice. Interesting practice materials and helpful illustrations and diagrams are included. Theoretic concepts are explored in a context of specific methods and information which the reader will find applicable and workable.

PLAYS FOR PLAYERS AND GUIDE TO PLAY PRODUCTION, edited by Verne E. Powers. 740 pages, 6 × 9 inches. Clothbound, $4.00; Paperbound, $3.00. Row, Peterson and Company.

Here is a dramatic source-and-reference book consisting of 17 exceptional short plays and a wealth of production aids and suggestions. This text has something to offer all speech, English, and drama classes and every worker in the educational and non-professional theatre. There is a special section on the design and use of scenery, detailed directional and interpretative notes, chapters on stage movement, characterization, polishing a production, and many other graphic aids.

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